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ROBERT HUDSON,



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Professor R. W. Ackerman







J. Boydell, sc.

C. J. FOX.

THE
HISTORY

OF THE

REIGN OF GEORGE III.
TO THE
TERMINATION OF THE LATE WAR.

TO WHICH IS PREFIXED,

A VIEW OF THE PROGRESSIVE IMPROVEMENT OF ENGLAND,
IN PROSPERITY AND STRENGTH, TO THE
ACCESSION OF HIS MAJESTY.

IN FOUR VOLUMES.

BY ROBERT BISSET, LL. D.
AUTHOR OF THE "LIFE OF BURKE," &c. &c.

A NEW EDITION.

VOL. IV.

PHILADELPHIA:

PUBLISHED BY LEVIS & WEAVER, NO. 193, MARKET STREET.

THOMAS L. PLOWMAN, PRINTER.

1811.

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HISTORY

OF THE

REIGN OF GEORGE III.

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WHILE lord Cornwallis thus effected so great a change in Indostan, the eyes of all Europe were fixed on the revolutions of Poland and France. From the admiration of virtue, or from the enmity of ambition, princes and subjects were warmly interested in the concerns of the gallant, moderate, and discriminating votaries of rational liberty in Poland, but they were still more universally and vigilantly attentive to the furious proceedings of democratical and anarchical license in France. Every friend of human rights regarded the Polish establishment

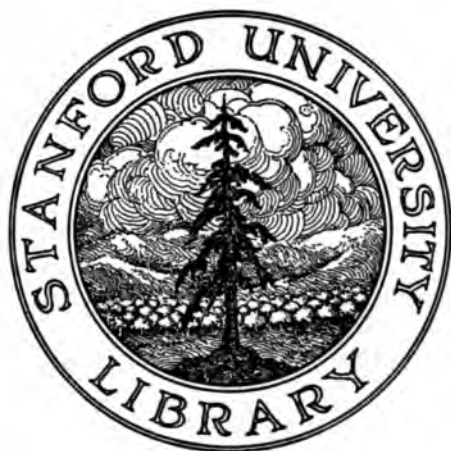
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The French revolution chiefly engages the attention of the continent and of Britain.

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The king
refuses to
attempt
his escape.

Different
views of
the emi-
grant prin-
ces and of
the nobles;

of foreign
potentates.

to betray his cause for a large sum of money, but that the court being either unwilling or unable to afford the bribe required^k by this patriot, he persevered in his republican career.^l A plan was concerted for effecting the king's escape to the coast of Normandy, which province was attached to his majesty. His flight, it is believed, would have been practicable; but the character of the king, mild and benevolent; without active enterprise, was little fitted to profit by these opportunities. His departure from Paris would, he thought, annihilate the monarchical constitution which he had sworn to protect; and expose all his adherents, declared or even suspected throughout France, to the infuriate cruelty of dominant licentiousness. From these considerations the king refused to attempt his escape. Understanding reports to have been circulated that he was projecting to leave Paris; to contradict these he wrote a letter to the national assembly, in which he fully explained his sentiments, views, and intentions.^m The friends of the king, and even of limited monarchy, regretted his unwillingness to venture any step that might rescue him from a situation in which he was so degraded and insulted. They conceived that the object was well worthy of the risk; and that the danger of flight was only doubtful, whereas the danger of continuance was, if not immediate, at least certain. Of the emigrants, the princes desired the restitution of the old government, but the majority of the exiled nobles and gentry desired the establishment of a moderate and limited monarchy. Foreign powers were also divided on this subject. Russia, Spain, and Sweden, proposed to restore the ancient monarchy. Prussia was somewhat favourable to this opinion, but would not interfere actively, without the cooperation of Leopold. The emperor continued friendly to peace until the conduct of the French government proved to him its determination to disturb tranquillity. They still withheld satisfaction for their usurpations in Lorraine and Alsace. They threatened with hostility the elector of Treves, and alleged various pretexts for their displeasure; but chiefly, his expres-

^k See Playfair's History of Jacobinism. ^l Persons thoroughly acquainted with Briasot, declare that avarice was no part of his character; and as Mr. Playfair brings no proofs of his assertion, disbelieve it as improbable.
^m State Papers, February 17th, 1792.

sion of doubts respecting the freedom of the king, and permission given to French emigrants to assemble in his dominions. French troops having approached the frontiers of Treves, and menacing his territories, the elector applied for protection to the emperor. This prince, as head of the Germanic body, proposed to the other princes of the empire, an extensive plan of defensive confederation, for mutual and reciprocal security against French aggression, and ordered marshal Bender to march to the defence of Treves. The French government, in a style rather menacing than conciliatory, demanded an explanation of the emperor's intentions. The answer of Leopold, though firm, was still pacific, and disavowed every intention of aggressive hostility. Meanwhile the emperor died very suddenlyⁿ at Vienna. Francis, his son and successor, declared his intention to persevere in the pacific plan of his father, but to be prepared for defensive war. The French government catagorically demanded a declaration of Francis's intentions, and received a reply announcing the existence of a concert for the purposes of defence, but not invasion. As the discussion proceeded, it became progressively more hostile,^o and both sides prepared for war. Catharine, operating on the heroic mind of the Swedish king Gustavus, had induced him, so early as the summer of 1791, to join in a project for the relief of Lewis, even if the emperor and Prussia kept aloof; and Spain soon after had acceded to this design. Gustavus betaking himself to Coblenz, conferred with the exiled princes and nobility; and, encouraged by Catharine, prepared an army which he was to head. He consulted Leopold and Frederick William, but found both unwilling to embark in so very hazardous a project. He, however, made dispositions for proceeding in his undertaking without their cooperation, and was preparing to conduct an armament which should make a descent on the coast of France, and cooperate^p with the royalists, when, on the 16th of March 1792,

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Disputes between the French government and the elector of Treves. The princes of the empire, headed by the emperor, and supported by Prussia, form a confederacy for defending their rights. Sudden death of the emperor.

Preparation of the king of Sweden.

ⁿ After an illness of two days, which by many was ascribed to poison; but there was never any proof of this assertion.

^o See State Papers, from January to March 1792. Correspondence between the ambassadors and ministers of France and Austria, at Paris and Vienna, especially the letters to and from count Kaunitz.

^p Bouille, chapters xii. and xiii.

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1793
Assassina-
tion of that
heroic
prince.

The
French
govern-
ment de-
mands of
Austria
and Prussia
the disa-
vowal of a
concert
hostile to
France.
Basis of
tranquillity
proposed
by Francis
and Frede-
ric Wil-
liam.

French
declare
war against
Austria
and
Prussia.

being at a masquerade in his capital, from the hands of Ankerstroem, a disaffected nobleman, who, with others, had plotted against his life, he received a wound which proved mortal. He for twelve days languished in agonizing pain; but retaining the use of his faculties, very ably and completely arranged his affairs; left wise and beneficial directions to his youthful son, and breathed his last on the 28th of March, in the forty-eighth year of his age, and twenty-first of his reign;^q a prince for genius and heroism rarely surpassed, and not often equalled, even in the glorious annals of Swedish kings. The confederacy of princes which Gustavus and Catharine first proposed for modelling the government of France, without regard to the voice of the people, did not actually take place, yet a different concert, originating chiefly in the imperious and violent conduct of France herself, was unavoidably formed. Dumourier, now foreign minister, in dictatorial terms required both from the courts of Berlin and Vienna the disavowal of any concert inimical to France, and the discontinuance of protection to the French emigrants. The answers of Prussia and Austria proposed a general principle as the basis of tranquillity; *that the French should not consider themselves, as from their revolution, entitled to violate the rights of other powers.* They therefore stated three subjects, on which they demanded satisfaction; first, that a compensation should be given to the princes possessed in Lorraine and Alsace. Secondly, that satisfaction should be rendered to the pope for the county of Avignon. Thirdly, that the government of France should have a sufficient power to repress whatever might give uneasiness to other states.^r Dumourier replied that the king of Hungary had no concern in these discussions, repeated in still stronger terms the demand of the French government, and denounced war unless the answer was categorical and speedy. The two German potentates adhering to their former replies, the national assembly, on the 20th of April, declared war against the king of Hungary and Bohemia,^s and soon after, against the king of Prussia.

^q On the sudden fall of these two princes, Tom Paine exultingly observed,
" See how kings are melting away !"
^r See State Papers, April 5th, 1792.
^s State Papers, April 5th, 1792.

In the decree denouncing hostilities, the national assembly repeated the imputation of a hostile confederacy against the liberties of France. The court of Vienna, in its counter manifesto,^t disavowed as before, all offensive intentions. The princes of the German empire had formed a concert for reciprocal protection against the unjust pretensions of France, which had considered her internal changes as reasons for deviations from the faith of foreign treaties. The king of Prussia, as member of the confederation for securing Germany against the aggressions of France, declared himself compelled to take an active share in the war. But besides the defensive objects avowed by Francis, the king of Prussia's manifesto declared, that one of his purposes was to put an end to anarchy in France, to establish a legal power on the essential basis of a monarchical form, and thus give security to other governments against the incendiary attempts and efforts of a frantic troop.^u Thus the repression of French principles was the chief object which, by his own avowal, induced the king of Prussia to join in hostilities against France; while the protection of the Germanic empire was ostensibly the principal motive of Francis. From the time that Leopold and Frederic William had concluded their alliance, they had joined in deeming the duke of Brunswic, the fittest general for directing the force of the defensive confederacy. An intercourse had been opened between them confidentially on this subject; and the duke was fully apprised, and approved of the enterprise of Leopold. When, from the aggression and declaration of France, war was become absolutely necessary, his serene highness accepted the command, and preparations were made for opening the campaign with the combined forces.

IMMEDIATELY after the declaration of war by France, the French forces were set in motion. The king had established four armies, in order to protect and cover his country, and to be in readiness to act as the existing circumstances might direct. The first army was assembled on the northern confines of France, under the command of the marshal de Rochambeau, an experienced officer,

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Counter
declara-
tion.

The duke of Brunswic is appointed general of the combined armies of Germany. Preparations of France, and distribution of the armies.

^t State Papers, July 5th, 1792.

^u See State Papers, July 24th, 1792.

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The
French in-
vade the
Austrian
Nether-
lands.

Their first
operations
are desul-
tory and
unsucces-
ful.

who had served in the French armies during the American war. This force was destined to cover the frontier towards the Austrian Netherlands, from the German Ocean at Dunkirk, to Maubeuge, in French Hainault, with their right extending to the Meuse. The marquis de la Fayette, appointed to command the second army, fixed his headquarters at Metz, and occupied Nancy, Thionville, and Luneville. By this means was the cordon extended from the banks of the Meuse to the Moselle, and retained in check the important fortress of Luxembourg. The third army was formed on the Rhine, under Luckner, and extended from Landau, by Strasburg, towards Montbeliard, and the pass of Porentrui into Switzerland. The possession of this important defile, aided by the favourable position of the mountains of Jura, rendered the extensive frontier of Franche Comte entirely safe. A fourth army was assembled on the side of Savoy, to watch the motions of the king of Sardinia, who was expected to join the hostile confederacy. The army of the north, commanded by Rochambeau, amounted to above fifteen thousand men ; the centre army, commanded by La Fayette, to seventeen thousand ; the army of the Rhine, to about twenty-two ; the fourth, to twelve thousand men. The reduction of the Low Countries was the object of this campaign ; and the disaffection to the house of Austria still subsisting in the provinces, afforded probable expectations of success. The army under Rochambeau occupied the direct road to Brussels, without any impediment but the garrison of Mons. Fayette commanded the county of Namur, and the navigation of the Meuse ; but the armies were found very imperfectly provided and disciplined : the French soldiers were deficient in military experience, in ammunition, and stores of every sort. Many of the officers warmly attached to the king were not eager in promoting a cause which they by no means deemed the cause of their sovereign. The war was begun with an attack on the cities of Mons and Tournay ; but the soldiers being impressed with an idea that they were betrayed by their generals, retreated in great confusion ; in their savage rage they murdered several officers, and among the rest Dillon, the lieutenant

general. They trampled upon his body, and having lighted a fire, threw the corpse into the flames. The infuriated soldiers danced round the remains of their commander: so ferocious and hardened had they become from the influence of the revolutionary enthusiasm. Rochambeau, finding the army totally loosened from subordination and all honourable principles of duty, resigned in the highest disgust. Luckner, appointed commander of the army of the north, found the troops in a much worse situation than even his predecessor had represented. La Fayette made the same complaints of the unprovided state of the force intrusted to his command, as deficient in camp equipage, artillery, ammunition, and stores of every kind: in short, at the commencement of the war the armies of the French government were in so very unprovided a state, as could hardly arise even from negligence, without the cooperation of treachery. In such a condition of the forces it was found necessary, if not to abandon, to postpone the invasion of the Austrian Netherlands, until discipline were better established, magazines formed, and other dispositions made, proper for a campaign.

THE Austrian force then in the Netherlands was not very considerable; and during the months of May and June the operations on both sides were desultory and unimportant. On the 3d of July, the duke of Brunswick arrived at Coblenz, with the first division of the Prussian army, and in the course of the month being joined by fresh troops, he prepared to commence the campaign. His serene highness, with very great talents, the deepest military skill, and eminent political abilities, is extremely diffident.* From that cause, joined to a gentle and delicate disposition, he frequently treated very inferior capacities with excessive deference, and did not with sufficient vigour maintain in deliberation the dictates of his own excellent understanding. Fitted to lead in council and in war, in the former the duke of Brunswick too frequently followed. In concerting the plan of the campaign 1792, he left the formation chiefly to Francis and Frederic William. These princes were impressed with an opinion,

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Unprovided state of their armies,

is imputed to treachery Dispositions of government to remedy this defect.

The duke of Brunswick arrives at Coblenz.

The allied powers misinformed concerning the disposition of the French nation.

* This is the account given of him by various gentlemen who have visited Germany.

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1792.

Under this
misinfor-
mation
they con-
cert the
plan of the
campaign.
They pro-
pose to in-
vade
France,
and restore
monarchy.

Manifesto
of the
duke of
Brunswic,

so naturally adopted, and studiously spread by the emigrants, that the greater number of Frenchmen were attached to the old government, and would join the standard of monarchy if they found themselves properly supported; and on this supposition they formed the plan of the campaign. It was proposed that the duke of Brunswic should set out from Coblentz with an army of Prussians, fifty thousand strong, and march by Treves and Luxemburg to Longvy. After reducing this fortress, and also if possible Montmedi, the next object was to establish magazines, continue the march, and invest Verdun. In support of these, as well as of subsequent operations, the court of Vienna engaged to bring into the field two armies; the one to act between the Rhine and the Moselle, and to be of sufficient strength for the purpose of at once menacing Landau and Saar Lewis, and carrying on the siege of Thionville; while the other, of much superior force, should be engaged in the Low Countries: their positions were to be as near the Meuse as possible. Should the expectations of a general rise in France be disappointed, the duke of Brunswic was not to cross the river with his main body, but to detach a considerable portion of his army to cooperate with the Austrians in French Hainault, in reducing Verdun, Sedan, and Meziers. Thus the allies establishing themselves upon the French frontier, would be able to winter in security, and commence the following campaign with great advantage. To oppose this invading force, the intrenched camp at Maubeuge, and another at Maulde, with the strong fortress of Valenciennes, formed the principal points of defence on the part of the French. Previous to the march of the duke of Brunswic, a manifesto was composed under the authority, and according to the sentiments of Francis, now emperor of Germany, and the king of Prussia; proclaiming the objects of these two princes in their projected invasion, and issued in the name of the duke of Brunswic, commander in chief of the expedition. This celebrated manifesto was founded on the same misinformation concerning the disposition of the French themselves, in which the plan of the campaign had originated. The proclamation declared, that the intention of the combined

princes was neither to conquer any part of France, nor to interfere with the internal government of that kingdom, but simply to deliver the king and queen from captivity. It invited all the French soldiers and other Frenchmen, to join the combined army in executing this design, promised protection and security to all who should accept these proffers; and denounced vengeance against the persons and property of all who should oppose the efforts of the confederates. It declared the present governors responsible for every evil that should accrue to the country from their refractory resistance; called on the people to submit to their sovereign, and promised to intercede with the king to grant his gracious pardon to penitent offenders. It warned other towns, but especially the city of Paris, that if they refused to comply, they should be delivered up to military execution. This proclamation was extremely unwise in its principles and tenor, and no less hurtful in its effects. The hopes of cooperation which the invaders might reasonably entertain, rested on the divisions which subsisted in France. The parties continued reducible to four general classes; first, the royalists or abettors of the old government, votaries of an absolute power, much more slavish than the most bigoted English tory of the seventeenth century would practically endure. Secondly, the *feuillants*, votaries of limited monarchy, desiring a mixture of liberty and order, and not much differing from English whigs. Thirdly, the constitutionalists, a still numerous, though decreasing body, friendly to the system which had been established by the late national assembly. Fourthly, the republicans, with great diversity of particular scheme, but concurring in desiring the total abolition of monarchy. If skilful means had been employed to unite the three former parties in defence of monarchy, perhaps the republicans and jacobins might have been repressed. The proclamation tended to unite those who were before divided; and by requiring implicit submission to the king, and declaring that all constitutional changes should originate in his will, it inculcated principles which only the slavish class would admit; and which every monarchical votary of liberty must reject as indignantly as the most outrageous jacobin;

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threatens
more than
its authors
can exe-
cute.

Unwise
and hurt-
ful to the
cause.

State of
parties in
France.

The mani-
festo com-
bines di-
versity of
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into unani-
mous
determina-
tion to re-
sist foreign
interfe-
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manifesto, it not only was contrary to the sentiments of every French friend of liberty, but of every French supporter of national independence. Two foreign sovereigns declared themselves judges between the members of the French national government. It could not be reasonably expected that the national spirit of a Frenchman would suffer such an assumption of power by Germans. This manifesto in its effects most materially injured the cause which its authors professed to promote: it afforded a simple and comprehensive principle of union in the abhorrence of despotism to be imposed by foreign powers: and combined the friends of moderate and rational liberty, with the most furious partisans of uncontrolled licentiousness. By inducing many to believe that the king approved its sentiments and principles, it rendered his personal safety insecure; and hurried the downfall of the kingly power in France. It totally deviated from the defensive system which the emperor had professed to support, and appeared to justify the imputation of a concert of kings to crush Gallic liberty. Instead of intimidating, it enraged the French nation: threats, without the power of execution, recoiled in indignant scorn upon the menacers. The apprehension of a confederacy formed to dictate to an independent nation the plan of internal government which it should adopt, roused the pride of Frenchmen, and turned the energy of their character to military efforts, invincible in defence, and as it afterwards proved, irresistible in attack.

MEANWHILE proceedings at Paris were hastening the destruction of monarchy, and in effect cooperating with the dictatorial menaces of the confederated invaders. The friends of monarchy absolute or limited, fast continued to emigrate: the king was forced to dismiss ministers of his own choice, and to receive republicans¹ in their place. The principal direction was possessed by the jacobin clubs: their system of government was simple and obvious, to overawe and overrule the legislative assembly by the national guards,

¹ They consisted of members of a known party by the name of Girondists, from the Girond department, along the banks of the Garonne, which district the principal members of this party represented. They had been constitutionalists, but were now avowed republicans, though less violent in their professions than the Jacobins. Among the Girondists were the chief literary men in France.

and the mob of Paris, nor did they seem to have any greater or more fixed object in the exercise of their power, than the subversion of all order, and the confusion of all property. There still remained a diversity of condition, notwithstanding all their advances in the levelling system. The proprietors of estates, the merchants, and the manufacturers, were in a better situation than their respective day labourers, and also than many others, who though possessing no property, did not choose to be labourers. The disposition to idleness was greatly increased by the revolution: many of the inhabitants of Paris had chiefly subsisted by the employment which they received from the nobility and other landed proprietors. These sources no longer flowing, numbers became idle from want of industrious occupation. The sovereignty of the mob was not friendly to productive industry; it could not reasonably be expected, that men taught to conceive themselves kings would vouchsafe to dig ditches or pave the streets. Besides, these sovereigns, even if disposed to manual labour, had no time to spare. They were engaged in politics: hence a very numerous body of citizens, who before their elevation had been useful handicrafts men, were now in their sovereign capacity extremely idle, and extremely poor; and as the new liberty included an exemption from moral and religious restraint, they were also extremely profligate. To the poverty of the idle and profligate, order and tranquillity, which preclude them from their principal means of subsistence, are naturally obnoxious. The meanest and most beggarly citizens sought a more general equalisation of property, and assumed the supreme executive authority. A ragged coat was deemed an honourable testimony of the wearer's political principles; the lowest rabble, denominated from their dress sansculottes, or ragamuffins, took a lead in public affairs. The national guards were now become somewhat moderate; the jacobin club, the sansculottes, and the violent republicans of every kind, determined that an army should be formed, composed of twenty thousand men, under the control of the republicans. Without any order from the king the war minister proposed that the desired force should be raised and encamped under the walls of Paris. The assembly, to gratify

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Decrees
for raising
a jacobin
army, and
punishing
refractory
priests.

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The king
retires his
sanction.

the sansculottes, passed the decree: under the same influence they also enacted another law against refractory priests. The king firmly refused to sanction these laws, which were respectively inimical to his executive authority, and to justice. The republican ministers urged their master, not without threats, to comply with the desire of the people; but his majesty with becoming dignity dismissed these insolent servants. These and other republicans, as the decree was not passed, embodied a jacobin army for themselves. An immense multitude assembled from different quarters of Paris, and, armed with pikes, axes, swords, muskets, and artillery, marched in a body, on the 20th of June, towards the Thuilleries, that they might force the king to sanction the two decrees. Appearing before the palace they demanded admittance, and the gates being thrown open, the rabble violently entered into the apartment of their king. His majesty received this banditti with calmness and moderation; but though not without a dread of being assassinated, he firmly refused to comply with their insolent demands. The fury of the mob at length subsided, and they departed without effecting their purposes. Numbers of the populace who had not been engaged in the outrage, expressed their indignation against the rioters, and their admiration of the king's courage and conduct; and the various other parties were extremely incensed against the jacobins. The new minister for the home department taking advantage of this disposition, published a proclamation on the subject of the recent tumult, which gave such satisfaction, that many of the departments sent addresses to the king and to the national assembly, demanding that the authors and abettors of the insurrection might be punished with the utmost severity. It appeared on inquiry that Petion the mayor, and Manuel the procurator, might have easily either prevented or quelled this insurrection; they were therefore both suspended from their offices. The constitutionalists highly approved of this sentence, which the royalists thought too moderate, while the jacobins breathed vengeance against the punishers of a magistrate who instigated insurrection. La Fayette, finding the tide of popular opinion to run somewhat less against

La Fayette
repairs to
Paris.

monarchy, repaired to Paris to remonstrate concerning the late outrages; but he possessed neither ability, decision, nor intrepidity to intimidate his enemies; firmness or consistency to give confidence to his friends. After being favourably received by the constitutionalists, he was severely censured by the Girondists and jacobins, for leaving the army without permission, and attempting to govern the assembly by intimidation. He left Paris privately; commissaries were sent from the assembly to arrest the general; he gave orders to have these deputies apprehended; finding however, no disposition in his army to afford him support, he withdrew in the night to Liege; there falling into the hands of the enemy, and refusing to join the standard of the French princes, he was sent a prisoner to Namur.

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but is
obliged to
fly;

he leaves
the French
army and
surrenders
to the
Austrians.

INTELLIGENCE now reached Paris, that the combined armies were preparing to take the field; the national assembly endeavoured to inspire the people with an enthusiastic eagerness to oppose a confederation of despots; and with the assistance of the jacobin clubs they were successful. They decreed the country to be in danger, and published two addresses,^z the one to the people of France, the other to the army, which were skilfully adapted to their respective objects, powerfully stimulated the enthusiasm of both; and demonstrated that however deficient the republican leaders might be in virtuous principles, they could ably call into action the passions and energies of men. They soon issued a decree, declaring that all citizens qualified to bear arms, should be in a state of perfect activity. By this measure the whole order of things was completely changed; and the French became a nation of soldiers. The German potentates threatening the subjugation of a powerful people, drove the objects of their invasion, to the ferocious energy of a military democracy. On the 14th of July, vast bodies of federates arrived in the metropolis, at the invitation of the jacobin leaders, to celebrate the third anniversary of the revolution. Among others a troop from Marseilles repaired to Paris, to participate of the uproar and confu-

French en-
thusiasm
on the ap-
proach of
the com-
bined
armies.

Anniver-
sary of the
14th of
July.

The Mar-
seillais.

z See State Papers, July, 1792.

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Passive
citizens.

sion, which they expected to arise from the celebration. They happened to arrive too late for the anniversary, but in sufficient time to produce disorder and tumult. They rendered their first homage to Petion who was now restored to his office, and were received with great kindness by that magistrate, whose duty it was to drive them from the metropolis. They commenced their operations with attacking a party of national guards who were dining at a tavern, and whom they supposed to be attached to the king; killing one and wounding five, they paid their respects to the national assembly;^a and were very graciously received by the republicans. Visiting the jacobins they partook of the fraternal embrace, and were admitted members of the club. Small as the qualification of voters denominated active citizens was, yet the number of those who were not included was very great, and fast increasing from prevalent idleness and profligacy. These consisting of beggars, vagabonds, and the meanest classes of ruffians, thieves, robbers, and assassins, under the name of *passive citizens*, assumed to themselves the chief portion of the executive power, in the exercise of which they were instigated and guided by their friends of the jacobin clubs. The passive citizens most joyfully received the Marseillois strangers, as a coordinate estate, but which was soon consolidated into one body with themselves, and their supporters, while the jacobins by their affiliations and adherents, governed the whole mass. The republicans now denominated the Mountain, because they occupied the higher benches in the assembly room, began to govern the legislature, and from this time the acts of the national assembly are to be considered as the acts of the jacobins. They proceeded in their efforts for destroying regal power; they imputed the king's refusal to sanction the two decrees, to a correspondence with the exiles and the enemy. His majesty having in a letter expressed his reprobation of the duke of Brunswick's manifesto, the assembly would not suffer this expression of his sentiments to be communicated to the public. On the 3d of August, Petion demanded, in the name of the

^a Otridge's Annual Register, 1792, chap. xi.

forty-eight sections into which Paris was divided, that the king should be excluded from the throne, and that the management of affairs should be intrusted to responsible ministers, until a new king should be chosen, by a national convention; and on the 7th of August Collet d'Herbois a play actor headed a great body of passive citizens, who made the same demand to the national assembly. They were answered that the assembly would take the requisition into consideration. The king informed of these proceedings addressed a proclamation to the people of France, stating his own conduct and its reasons; the malicious artifices by which it was misrepresented; the situation of affairs; the union and vigour required at the present crisis;^b but the assembly studiously prevented the proclamation from being dispersed. On the 9th of August,^c the day appointed for considering the proposed deposition of the king, bodies of armed men surrounded the assembly hall, menaced^d and insulted the members whom they conceived inimical to the republican proposition. As an insurrection was threatened, the constitutional party urged Petion to employ the municipal force in preventing tumult, but no precautions were adopted. At midnight the tocsin sounded, the Marseillois joined by other insurgents marched with such arms, as they could collect towards the Thuilleries. The council of state made vigorous and prudent dispositions for repelling the attack. The Swiss guards amounting to about a thousand, joined by other loyal and gallant men, formed themselves to resist the insurgents. In the morning the banditti broke in;^e and the officers of the household encouraged the valiant defenders of the king: at first the brave champions of their sovereign repulsed the insurgents, but the rebels having corrupted the national guards, the gallant Swiss were overpowered and fell under the murderous hands of the banditti. The king was strongly importuned to send for a large body of Swiss guards stationed near Paris, which, joining their heroic countrymen, by steady and disciplined valour might have repelled the

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The mayor of Paris in the name of his constituents, demands the deposition of the king.

Proceedings of the 10th of August,

a banditti assault the Thuilleries. Valour of the Swiss guards; they are overpowered and massacred by the savage mob;

^b State Papers, 17th of August, 1792. ^c Annual Register 1792, chap. xi. d Clery, page 4.

^e See a very interesting and pathetic detail of these dreadful atrocities in Clery's journal, page 2 to 16.

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1793.

the royal
family car-
ried pri-
soners to
the temple.
Deposition
of the king.

Plan of
provision-
ary gov-
ernment
drawn up
by Brissot.

Manifes-
tos to the
French
people,
and to
foreign
powers.

infuriate assassins. But the virtues of Lewis were not those that were most fitted for encountering the very arduous situations in which he was placed. His gentle disposition was averse to the employment of greater force, as it must cause the farther effusion of blood. In his case wisdom dictated and self-preservation required stern and unyielding firmness; desperate resolution might perhaps have extricated him from his humiliating state; concession to so infuriate atrocity, was certain destruction. Lewis still hoping to preserve his family sought refuge from the national assembly, the rulers of which, he well knew were seeking his ruin. The royal captives were now confined in the temple; the palace which they had left, became a scene of pillage, carnage, and desolation. The jacobins elated with their victory, proceeded to the deposition of the king; and on the 10th of August a decree was passed, suspending him from his royal functions, and retaining him as an hostage in the hands of the nation. Brissot one of the chief supporters of this revolution, proposed a provisional government until a national convention assembling should determine whether the king was to be restored or dethroned. The executive power was to be lodged in a council of the jacobin ministers lately displaced. Brissot wrote a manifesto addressed to citizens, and a declaration addressed to foreign powers, justifying the decree of the 10th of August; these papers were dexterously executed, and conveyed a high idea of the ingenuity of the author; skilfully various in its efforts; the declaration to his own countrymen appealed to all their prejudices, and feelings, and passions; and through the very susceptibility of their minds, imposed on their judgment; his memorial to foreign nations employed plausible sophistry to mislead their understandings, as he could hope for less sympathy from their hearts. The first manifesto is misrepresentation in the shape of impressive eloquence; the second in the form of logical deduction; and both show the author to have in a high degree united declamation and subtlety. While thus exerting himself for the dethronement and imprisonment of the king, this patriot was said to be carrying on a correspondence for betraying the republican party, by suffering the king to

escape ; but it was alleged that the bribe which he required, half a million sterling, was more than the royal coffers could afford.^f

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THE municipality or common council of Paris, which had been lately constituted and was composed of the very dregs of the people, assumed a large share of the direction of public affairs. By their influence the chief acts of the deliberative body were determined, and through their protection and operation the executive government in a considerable degree was administered. A party of these appearing as the deputies of the people, at the bar of the assembly, demanded in the name of the people, that a national convention should be immediately called. The assembly received these counsellors very graciously, and in obedience to their mandates, resolved to invite the French to form a national convention.

A PLAN of a convention drawn up by the Brissotines, was disseminated and recommended through the nation. Meanwhile the jacobins and the sansculotte rabble proceeded in their operations. Hitherto they had not entirely crushed the ecclesiastics, or eradicated christianity, but they rapidly proceeded in the attempt. All who continued to refuse perjury were by an act of the assembly ordered to quit the kingdom. The council general next ordered, that all the vessels, images, and other moveables in the churches of Paris, whether gold or silver, should be sent to the mint ; the church bells were turned into cannon. From monuments of religion they proceeded to monuments of monarchy : the brazen statues of the princes were converted into ordnance, and thus it was said, were drawn over from the cause of tyranny to the cause of liberty. The next object after religion and monarchy was property. Confiscation hitherto grasping lands had not extended its rapacity in an equal degree to moveables. To supply this deficiency, they instituted what they called *domiciliary visits*, officers employed by the municipality, and accompanied by *passive citizens*, visited private houses, to search for arms ; for refractory priests, or other aristocrats. According to their good pleasure they plun-

Plan of a
conven-
tion.

Persecu-
tion of the
unyielding
priests.

Church
plate is
sent to the
mint, and
the bells
are turned
into can-
non.

Domicilia-
ry visits.

^f See Playfair's jacobinism.

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Walking
commissaries.Massacres
of September.Atrocious
barbarity
towards
the princess
Lamballe.

dered the houses, arrested or even hanged the owners. Brissot in his professional capacity as editor of a newspaper, very strongly recommended and ardently promoted these *domiciliary visits*: Pétion as mayor was still more effectually active: nor was Danton as minister of justice wanting with his assistance. He proposed, and by threats extorted a decree, for *walking commissaries*, who were to cooperate with the domiciliary visitors. Whoever should refuse to give up his arms, or to serve in the army at the requisition of the said commissaries, was to be declared a traitor and punished with death, without any further inquiry. The visitors and commissaries did not murder all those whose houses they inspected; but in many instances contented themselves with sending the owners to dungeons. The prisons were become extremely full; the rulers thought it expedient to rid themselves of the captives by stirring the populace to another insurrection and massacre. For this purpose it was alleged, that as the duke of Brunswick's approach would compel the majority of the inhabitants to take the field, it would be dangerous to leave the prisons so full of aristocrats and suspected persons. By these representations the murderous rabble was easily excited to assassination. On the 2d of September the tocsin was sounded, the cannon of alarm were fired; and bands of ruffians were sent to the different prisons. They commenced their carnage with priests; two hundred and forty-four clergymen were murdered before the evening. The assassins from the ministers of religion, proceeded to the gallant defenders of fallen monarchy, and murdered the Swiss officers, that having been spared at the last massacre were now in prison. From these murders the savages betook themselves to more indiscriminate barbarity, searched the common prisons and even hospitals, butchered felons, sick, and lunatics,^g as well as those who were charged with disaffection to government. Among the cases which most strongly mark the enormous depravity of those brutalized barbarians, none can exceed the massacre of the princess Lamballe: this lady sprung from the house of Savoy, was distinguished for personal charms,

^g See Annual Register for 1792, chap. iii.

and a character at once amiable and estimable, and had been superintendant of the queen's household. Married to a man whom she loved, she had been deprived of her husband, through the duke of Orleans;^h and was now principally distinguished for her ardent and invincible attachment to her royal mistress, and her detestation of her husband's murderer. She with other attendants on her queen had been sent to prison on the 10th of August; the murderers about eight in the morning of the 3d of September, entered the apartment in which this unfortunate lady was immured. They offered to save her life, if she would fabricate charges against the queen. The heroic princess returned a resolute negative: they demanded that she should take the oath of liberty and equality, also an oath of hatred to the king, to the queen, and to royalty; the first she consented to take, but refused the last: an assassin said, swear or you are a dead woman; she looked in his face but made no reply. In an instant she was assassinated with pikes and bayonets; her clothes were torn off, and the naked corpse exposed to the most abominable insults. With religion, justice, order, and humanity, decency and modesty fled. The head and body of the massacred lady were exposed before the windows of the royal captives, with every circumstance of brutalism, that diabolical malignity, maddened to frenzy could suggest.ⁱ The murders continued for a week; in which time the numbers of the massacred exceeded five thousand. Meanwhile the elections of the national convention were carried on under the influence of this terrible system. A circular letter from the municipality of Paris, countersigned by Danton was sent to all the other municipalities, required the approbation of the whole people to the massacres, and even recommended them to imitation; and under such control the election proceeded. The clergy were banished; the higher and the most honourable of the nobility had fled, or fallen by the hands of the assassins; the royal family in prison expected their fate; all who favoured royalty or distinction of rank were held in abhorrence, and those who had been called passive as well as the active citizens had been declared to be eli-

^h See volume iii. p. 350.

ⁱ See Otridge's Register, 1792.

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gible to all honours and offices of the state. The convention was chiefly chosen from the most violent and desperate republicans in the kingdom. The members assembled on the 20th of September; and the next day they sanctioned the law for abolishing royalty. Having thus proscribed monarchy, and established what they termed the French republic, their next object was, to prepare for the murder of their dethroned king.

WHILE the French were thus occupied, their proceedings and projects afforded the highest satisfaction to democratic republicans in other countries. From England many individuals flocked to Paris, as the centre of liberty and happiness. The societies eagerly transmitted their approbation of the French revolutionists; during the successive degradations of monarchy they had in their own country published their applause of its invaders, but when the acts of the 10th of August had deposed and imprisoned the king, murdered his defenders, and prostrated his power; when the busy week of September extending the massacre of aristocrats, shed the blood of the nobility, gentry, and clergy; when the national convention doing honour to its own composition, had abolished the kingly office, the English societies eagerly testified their joy and congratulations on the success of those with whose principles they declared their own to coincide, and with whose feelings they avowed the most cordial sympathy. The chief democratical clubs of England, were then *the revolution club; the society for constitutional information, both in London; and the London corresponding society affiliated with divers places through the kingdom.* The address of the first to the national convention, the shortest of the three, restricted its applause to the 10th of August; augured happiness from the establishment of a republic on the downfall of monarchy; repeated the opinions of the late Dr. Price; to refresh the memory of revolutionists concerning the treatment of dethroned kings, alluded to the history of Charles I.; and expressed their hopes that peace and constant alliance should be established between Britain and the French republic. The address of the society for *constitutional information* approved of the
tion of the king; expressed hopes that the *same*

doctrines would be received, and the same examples generally followed in other countries. Having declared their sentiments in the most pompous phraseology, they accompanied their eloquence with a donation of shoes;^k but the most explicit of the addresses was the production of the London corresponding society, and its affiliated friends; which praising the successive and various proceedings of the French republicans, reprobated the policy and constitution of Britain.^l This address subscribed by Thomas Hardy, shoemaker; and Maurice Margarot, knifegrinder; stated divers and manifold blessings which Britons might attain by following the counsels of the said Thomas Hardy, shoemaker; Maurice Margarot, knifegrinder; and other politicians equally enlightened, instead of being guided by those who had so long governed Britain: the sentiments of the corresponding society devoted openly to the cause of mankind, existed, they were convinced, in the hearts of all the freemen of England; they enjoyed by anticipation and with a common hope, that epoch (not far distant), when the interests of Europe and of mankind, should invite the two nations to stretch out the hand of fraternity. The convention received the addresses with very great satisfaction, and strongly expressed their expectations of a similar change in England, and their confident hopes, that they speedily would have an opportunity of congratulating their corresponding friends, on a national convention established in England: the convention conferred the honour of citizenship on various individuals belonging to other countries, and some of the departments chose for their representatives such Englishmen as they conceived proper delegates for expressing their doctrines and sentiments. Of these the most noted was Thomas Paine, and the most eminent was Dr. Priestley; this gentlemen was so greatly pleased with the twofold honours conferred on him, by being thus naturalized by the anarchists, and even deemed worthy of a place in their convention,¹ that he wrote letters both to the convention

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accompany their commendations with a gift of shoes. The corresponding society by its secretary Thomas Hardy, shoemaker, invites the French republic to fraternity with Britain.

The convention believes the boasts of such reformers, that they speak the voice of the British nation.

^k The conveyance of these shoes was intrusted to Mr. John Frost, attorney, who having attained notoriety by professional achievements, had become a very zealous reformer.

^l See the respective addresses, Appendix of Otridge's Annual Register 1792, pages 70, 72, 73.

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AP. and individual members, manifesting and declaring the
 .IX. warmest approbation of their principles, as displayed in
 92. the suppression of monarchy and the privileged orders
 and the whole series of revolutionary proceedings: though
 his age and other circumstances prevented him from
 accepting a seat himself, he with the greatest thankfulness
 and joy accepted it for his son. The convention flattered
 with the approbation of one whom they conceived to be
 as great in political philosophy as he really was in physical,
 ordered his letter to be transcribed into their records, as a
 testimony of the applause bestowed by foreign illumination
 on their powerful efforts for the destruction of establish-
 ments; they charged their president to inform their pane-
 gyrist that they would with pleasure receive any reflec-
 tions which he, from the stores of his wisdom, might
 transmit to an assembly whose sentiments coincided with
 his own. With these testimonies of approbation from
 British democrats, the convention fancied, as indeed did
 many of the democrats themselves, that the voice of the
 British nation was in their favour, and that Joseph
 Priestley, dissenting minister; Thomas Hardy, dissenting
 shoemaker; Thomas Paine, cashiered exciseman and
 deist; Maurice Margarot, knifegrinder and deist; in
 conveying their own praises of the destruction of rank,
 property, and monarchy, including the massacres of Au-
 gust and September, echoed the feelings of all free Britons,
 and that they might soon expect through the British peo-
 ple, the cooperation of the British force. Pleased with
 attestations, of which they so much overrated the value,
 the convention proceeded in a series of measures no less
 conformable to their own sentiments, than those of their
 panegyrists. Their operations were directed principally
 to two objects, plunder and regicide.

THE first head comprehended the farther extension of
 confiscation, and also the convertibility of the objects thus
 seized into gold and silver; which they found much more
 current than the assignats. The second consisted of reso-
 lutions, decrees, charges, and witnesses, which they were
 preparing, that in the eyes of their deluded votaries they
 might give some colour of legality to the murder of their
 king. In order to accumulate gold and silver, they saw

other countries might be rendered extremely productive ; for that purpose it was deemed expedient to combine fraud with robbery. Agents were sent to London, Amsterdam, Madrid, and other opulent cities, with orders to negotiate bills on Paris, payable in assignats. Those bills being discounted in foreign countries, the value in specie was remitted to France : when they became due, they were paid according to the course of exchange ; but before this could be converted into cash, assassins were hired to patrol the streets, and threaten all those who sold gold and silver ;^m thus the payers were either obliged to take their paper money or a much less sum in coin than that which had been remitted from the discount ; and by every operation of this kind the quantity of specie of France was increased. In managing this traffic, the jacobins, proceeding with their usual energy and rapidity, rendered it extremely extensive and productive, before merchants and their bill brokers discovered its hurtful result, and before political causes put an end to the neutrality through which it was effected. The convention, with much ease, amassed immense quantities of gold and silver, both into the public treasury, and into the private coffers of the leaders. The other chief object, the murder of the king, they pursued with the most iniquitous vigour and perseverance.

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Schemes of the convention for procuring the property of other countries.

MEANWHILE, the Prussian army advanced on the left towards Thionville, and the Austrian army on the right through Luxemburgh, in order to join it on the confines of France. The Austrian general reduced Longvy : the armies, after their junction, captured Verdun, and besieged Thionville. The French executive government displayed great vigour and judgment in its exertions and dispositions for resisting and repelling the invasion. The frontier fortresses, which, not without probable reason, they deemed purposely neglected by the royal officers, they strengthened as well as time and circumstances would permit, but trusted their principal defence to more inland posts. Dumourier being appointed general, undertook to

Progress of the Duke of Brunswick.

^m The gold and silver were sold by porters in the streets, some of whom sold for their own account, but most of them for moneyed men, who did not appear. See Playfair's History of Jacobinism.

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He enters
France,
and advances
towards
Cham-
paign.

Dumou-
rier, the
French
general,
occupies a
strong po-
sition.

The duke
of Bruns-
wic re-
treats.

Elation of
the French.

defend the passes between Lorraine and Champaign, with a force much inferior to the German host. Roland, minister for the home department, issued a proclamation for carrying off provision and forage, cutting down trees, and forming abbatis to impede the march of the enemy. Leaving the sieges to detachments, the combined troops advanced towards Champaign, and found that the people, far from cooperating, were unanimous and zealous in annoying the invaders. Sickness and want of provisions began to pervade the combined armies: still, however, they persevered in advancing. They found Dumourier posted at St. Menchoud, a strong defile in Champaign. They attacked his front division, but were repulsed. A negotiation was opened on the 22d of September, between Dumourier and the king of Prussia, but news arriving of the abolition of monarchy, it was broken off. Dumourier now received daily reinforcements. The duke of Brunswick and the king of Prussia perceiving the strength of the enemy before them, and knowing every thing behind them was hostile, fearing to be hemmed in, proposed to retreat. The Austrian general deprecated this movement, but as his command was only subordinate, he was obliged to comply. On the 30th of September these denouncers of conquest were compelled to measure back their steps; and, on their rout, being annoyed by the French army, lost numbers of their men, and a great part of their baggage. Abandoning their conquests, by the 18th of October they completely evacuated France. Thus ended the confederate invasion, which excited great hopes, poured out splendid promises and imperious threats, but performed nothing. It was soon found to have materially injured the cause of the allies: the flight of the enemy, after such boasts, operating on the susceptibility of the French character, elevated their spirits, and turned the military energy which defence had excited to offence and invasion. It was speedily resolved to enter Belgium. Dumourier made rapid and effective preparations in provisions, artillery, and troops elated with recent success. In the beginning of November he entered the Austrian Netherlands; on the fifth of the month attacked the Austrian army in its camp at Jemappe, gained a complete and decisive victory. He successively reduced

the various cities of Flanders and Brabant; before the middle of the month was master of Brussels; and in less than another month had totally subdued the Austrian Netherlands, except Luxemburgh. General Custine having invaded Germany, captured the cities of Worms, Spites, and Mentz; subjugated all the country between the Rhine and the Moselle, except Coblentz; crossing the Rhine, he also reduced Franckfort.

THESE rapid acquisitions operating upon the volatile minds of the French, inspired them immediately with the desire of unbounded conquest. They became as eager to sacrifice the rights and properties of other nations to their ambition and rapacity, as they were to seize the rights and properties of their fellow-subjects. They resolved to preserve or annul treaties, without regard to national faith or to justice, as best suited the boundless advancement of their power. Such being their end, their means were at once simple and comprehensive: with their own immense force, to employ in their service the disaffection, caprice, and folly of individuals and bodies in other countries. The susceptibility so often remarked in the French character, appeared in credulity, or the ready admission of assertions and allegations, as well as in sympathetic accessibility to sentiments and doctrines. A desire of indefinite change had gone abroad through the world; and prevalent as this passion really was, the French both conceived and believed it to be universal. In Germany and the Netherlands, where it was actually frequent, they supposed it paramount and irresistible, from hatred to arbitrary power and oppression; in England they apprehended it to be equally dominant, as an emanation from the national spirit of liberty. The praises bestowed by eminent statesmen on their efforts to overthrow despotism, they construed into an unqualified approbation of their levelling system. Hearing of the rapid dissemination of the work of Paine, they imputed the reception of these new theories to a desire of applying them to practice. The addresses which they received from obscure clubs, they, on the authority of the addressers believed to speak the voice of the British people. The three last panegyrics of the reforming societies, more specifically expressing a desire of copying the

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Dumourier enters the Netherlands, defeats his enemy at Jemappe, and reduces the country. The French propose to conquer and revolutionize all neighbouring states.

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Noted decree of November 19th, encouraging foreign nations to revolutionize.

The French open the Scheldt, contrary to treaties with Britain.

example of France, strengthened their assurance of British sympathy. The last and strongest of these banished all doubts that Britain desired to fraternise with France, in establishing democracy, and levelling ranks and distinctions. So little proportion is there often found in political history between the importance of instruments and effects, that a great scheme of French policy, directly hostile to all established governments, and one of the chief causes which involved Britain in a continental war, is to be traced to the ignorant vanity of the meanest mechanics, seeking importance out of their respective spheres. Believing that Thomas Hardy, a shoemaker, and other worthies of equal political consequence, represented the people of Great Britain, and that the people of other nations concurred to encourage and stimulate subversion of establishment, on the 19th of November 1792, in direct and open contradiction to their former professions, not to interfere in the internal government of other states, the convention passed, by *acclamation*, a decree," "That the national convention "declare, in the name of the French nation, that they "will grant fraternity and assistance to all those people "who wish to procure liberty; and that they charge the "executive power to send orders to their generals to give "assistance to such people as have suffered, or are now "suffering, in the cause of liberty." This decree confirmed a suspicion which had been entertained from their preceding conduct, that the fomentation of sedition and insurrection in foreign countries, was a systematic principleⁿ of the French republic, immediately produced jealousy and caution in neighbouring nations, and determined most of them to prohibit all intercourse with the French revolutionists. The course of French conquests having led Dumourier to the Scheldt, soon manifested their principles of justice. Their first act, after the reduction of the Austrian Netherlands, was to open the navigation of the Scheldt, in contravention to the most sacred treaties,

ⁿ See proceedings of the national convention, November 19th, 1792.

^o Most of our readers will probably recollect the noted saying of Brissot, that they must set fire to the four quarters of the globe. I am assured by a gentleman who was then at Paris, and very intimate with the Girondists, that this was the general language and intent.

guaranteed by Britain, France herself, and the neighbouring powers. As Holland was so intimately connected with Britain, their conduct was a peculiar attack upon this country, and showed that they were resolved to include Britain in a general system of aggressive hostility. With the designs of France, so inimical to the English government, a spirit of disaffection and innovation at home powerfully cooperated.

DURING the recess of 1792, the public ferment greatly increased in this country. The efforts of the revolutionary emissaries became more strenuous in London, and in the other great cities of England. Government had been so completely overturned in France, and the possession of power and property had been so entirely attained by the revolutionary banditti, that their courage and audacity were beyond all bounds. The retreat of the duke of Brunswick; a retreat not displeasing to some even of the moderate friends of freedom, to those, at least, who considered the good of real liberty more than the phantom that had assumed its name in France, greatly emboldened the democratical republicans of England, who admired that phantom. About the capital the approaching downfall of the British constitution became a subject of common talk: king, lords, and commons, church and state, were described as on the eve of dissolution. The garrulous vanity of some of the weak and ignorant members of the democratic societies boasted of the situations they were to attain under the new order which was to be speedily established. From a multiplicity of circumstances it was evident, that a design was formed to overthrow the constitution, and that there was great confidence of its success. That such proceedings required to be checked, controled, and punished, could not be denied by any who possessed just notions of the nature of man in his social state: government employed such measures as appeared to be the best calculated to correct this growing and threatening mischief. But though the arm of law be sufficiently strong to restrain the open invader of the constitution, it was not altogether able to ferret all the secret arts of its enemies. It became necessary, therefore, to aid the efforts of law by employing their own weapons against the

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Effects in
Britain
from
French
doctrines
and
proceedings.
Anti-constitutional
ferment
during the
recess of
1792.

English republicans
confidently
hope for a
change.

Alarm of
many
friends of
the constitution.

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Mr.
Reeves's
association
against
republi-
cans and
levellers,

is very ge-
nerally
joined, and
gives an
important
turn to
public opi-
nion.

adversaries of our establishments. As the approaches were carried on by societies, clubs, and familiar books, suited to the meanest capacities, it became a public duty to establish associations, and prepare literary works, which might oppose these hostile attacks. An association was accordingly instituted in November, by a gentleman of the law named Mr. Reeves, for the avowed purpose of protecting liberty and property against republicans and levellers. The framer's address, stating with great perspicuity and force the multiplied and pernicious efforts of enemies to our laws and constitution, and calling on all loyal and patriotic men to unite in the defence of every thing that could be dear to Britons, made a very deep and rapid impression, and spread a general alarm. Associations for preserving the constitution multiplied in every part of the kingdom, and were joined by far the greater number of respectable Britons. These associations had a most powerful effect in counteracting the seditious societies; they recalled the well meaning but misguided votaries of innovation to the recollection of the blessings that were ascertained by experience, diffused a spirit of constitutional loyalty through the country, and brought back the stream of popular opinion into the old and useful channel. Mr. Reeves's exhortations to patriotic and loyal union were accompanied with books explaining the hurtful effects of the Gallic changes; and though some of these, in reprobating levelling democracy, may have urged to the contrary extreme, yet the main operation was highly salutary:^p the whole measure prevented or recovered great numbers of Britons from jacobinism, which was then the impending danger; and its certain consequence, if allowed to flourish, the subversion of the British constitution. Before public opinion had received so salutary a bias, the seditious practices had, in various parts, produced such disorders as to render the interference of the executive government necessary. The king availed himself of his legal power to embody the militia, and to convene the

^p For instance, a letter from Thomas. Bull to his brother John, though it employed some of the exploded sentiments and phraseology of tory bigotry, yet taught the common people the mischiefs of innovating speculations; and that their respectability and happiness depended not upon political theories, but on their practical performance of their professional, moral, and religious duties.

parliament before the time to which it had been prorogued, and to call on the representative wisdom of the people for counsel and aid at so momentous a crisis. At this eventful period some of the most distinguished supporters of opposition, deeming the present a season of alarm and danger when all party spirit should subside, when all party contentions should cease, and when all men of all parties should unite to support the constitutional government of the country, considered our external as well as internal enemies to be of a species which never yet had been encountered; and that no weapon could so effectually oppose their diabolical designs as an unanimous and determined spirit of resistance: they therefore supported the present measures of administration.

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The king embodies the militia; and, at such a crisis, summons parliament before the appointed time.

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Meeting of parliament.—The king states his reasons for this extraordinary convocation.—The chief subjects of consideration the progress of jacobinical principles.—The greater number of peers and commoners conceive there is a design to revolutionize Britain.—A small but able band think this alarm unfounded.—Conduct of France comes before parliament.—Peace, the interest and wish of Britain, if it could be preserved with security.—Commercial policy of the minister, and unprecedented prosperity of the country.—The British government observed a strict neutrality during the hostilities between France and Germany.—Communication between lord Grenville and the French ambassador in summer 1792.—On the deposition of the king of the French, our sovereign orders his ambassador to leave Paris.—This order a necessary consequence of our king's determination of neutrality.—Careful avoidance of interference in the internal affairs of France.—Application of the emperor and king of Naples to his Britannic majesty to refuse shelter to murderers.—Strict adherence to neutrality by Britain.—Aggressions on the part of France.—Chauvelin opens an explanatory negotiation.—Marat, the French secretary comes to London to confer with Mr. Pitt.—Marat justifies, on revolutionary principles, the opening of the Scheldt, though contrary to the established law of nations.—Mr. Chauvelin supports the same doctrine in his correspondence with lord Grenville—professes the decree of November 19th not intended against Britain.—Reply of the British minister.—He declares Britain will not suffer France to annul at pleasure the established law of nations.—Britain requires France to forego her projects of invading and revolutionizing other countries.—Alien bill—is passed into a law.—Augmentation of the army and navy.—Proceedings at Paris.—Gironde party—their literary ability, boundless ambition, and wild pro-

jects.—*The Mountain blood thirsty and ferocious.—Robespierre, Danton, and Marat.—The Girondists desire to spare the king's life.—The Mountain and the mob desire regicide.—Pusillanimity of Brissot and the other Girondists.—A decree is passed for bringing the king to trial.—Attempts to break the spirit of Lewis—trial—not the smallest proof of guilt.—Complicated iniquity of the process in principle, substance, and mode.—Self-possession and magnanimity of the persecuted monarch.—Sentence.—Last interview of Lewis with his family.—Execution—an awful monument of the doctrines and sentiments that governed France.—Chauvelin demands from the British minister the recognition of the French republic—and the admission of its ambassador.—The British government refuses a recognition which would be an interference in the internal affairs of France.—Chauvelin remonstrates against the alien bill and the preparations of Britain—on the massacre of Lewis ordered to leave the country.—France declares war against Britain and Holland.—Review of the conduct of both parties.—Opinions of messrs. Burke, Fox, and Pitt respectively, on the French revolution—the justice and policy of a war.—Messrs. Burke and Pitt support the war on different grounds.—Mr. Pitt proposes the security of Britain—Mr. Burke the restoration of monarchy in France.—Violent party censures.—Impartial history finds in the conduct of neither just grounds for their reciprocal reproach.—Public opinion favourable to war with France.—In declaring war against France our king spoke the voice of a great majority of his people.*

ON the 13th of December parliament was assembled; and the king stated his various reasons for his present measures. Notwithstanding the strict neutrality which he had uniformly observed in the war now raging on the continent, he could not, without concern, observe the strong indications of an intention in the French to excite disturbances in other countries; to pursue views of conquest and aggrandizement inconsistent with the balance of Europe; to disregard the rights of neutral powers; and to adopt towards his allies the states general measures

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Meeting of parliament.

The king states his reasons for this extraordinary convocation.

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neither conformable to the public law, nor to the positive articles of existing treaties. He had, therefore, found it necessary to make some augmentation of his army and navy: these exertions were demanded by the present state of affairs, to maintain internal tranquillity, and render a temperate and firm conduct effectual for preserving the blessings of peace.

Chief subjects of deliberation the progress of jacobinical principles and French power.

The greater number of peers are concerned there is a design to revolutionize Britain.

NEVER did more momentous objects engage the attention of a British legislature than in the present session of parliament. Its many and complicated subjects of deliberation, however chiefly resulted from two subjects which were interwoven together, the operation of jacobinical principles, and the advances of French power. Ministers, supported not only by those members who for many years approved of their measures, but by most of the principal nobility of the old whig interest, Mr. Burke, the veteran champion of that party, and many other gentlemen of the house of commons, also, many members of the North part of the coalition, especially lord Loughborough, now chancellor, declared their conviction that a design existed to revolutionize this country; and that notwithstanding the precautions which were already employed, still constant vigilance, prudence, firmness, and energy, was necessary to prevent its success. It had not hitherto, they admitted, produced such overt acts as to afford grounds for judicial process; but had discovered, and even manifested, such objects and tendencies as demanded the counteraction of deliberative wisdom. There were intentions and schemes openly avowed, with many more reasonably suspected, for effecting the downfall of the existing establishments; although no specific treasonable plot had been actually brought to light, the evidence for the existence of such projects consisted of conversations, writings, specific proceedings, and general conduct. To repress such views and attempts, preventive and prospective measures were proposed, and not retrospective or penal.

A small but able band think this alarm unfounded.

A SMALL but very able band, headed by Mr. Fox, ridiculed and reprobated this apprehension; they said it was a mere chimera, like the popish plot of Titus Oates; that it sprang from the eloquent misrepresentations of

Mr. Burke's invectives against the French revolution, and was supported by ministers to promote an alarm ; divide the whigs ; oppose the spirit of liberty and the reform of parliament, and facilitate hostility with France. These were the respective positions of the bodies which now differed in parliament on the subject of internal danger. Mr. Fox and his adherents called for specific instances of conspiracy ; and alleged, that since none were produced, the pretended schemes and projects did not exist ; that every general imputation must be an aggregate of particular facts, or must be false ; that the deduction of probable practice from speculative theories was inconsistent with sound reason and experience, and totally unworthy of a legislature. Must parliament interfere whenever a hotbrained enthusiast writes or speaks nonsense ? for the ostensible purposes of ministry, their arguments were futile ; but for their real purposes their assertions and actions were well adapted. At the commencement of the session, Mr. Pitt was absent, his seat being vacated by his acceptancy of the Cinque Ports. The chief impugners of these arguments of Mr. Fox and his friends was Mr. Burke, who showing the connexion between opinion and conduct, insisted that the strongest preventive policy was necessary to the salvation of Britain.

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MEANWHILE the conduct of France towards this country, with the part which Britain should act in the present emergency, was a subject of anxious concern to the parliament and nation. To a commercial country deriving its prosperity from its industry and arts, cherished by peace, war was an evil to be incurred from no motive but necessity. The extension of commerce, manufactures, and every other source of private wealth and public revenue, though very far from exclusively occupying the official talents of Mr. Pitt, had hitherto been the most constantly prominent objects of his administration. He had promoted trade by the wisest and most efficacious means, removal of restraint, and reciprocation of profit. His exertions had been eminently successful where legislative or ministerial effort was necessary, and when no political interference was wanted, the national capital, enterprise, and

Conduct of France comes before parliament. Peace the interest and wish of Britain, if it could be preserved with security.

Commercial policy of the minister, and unprecedented prosperity of the country.

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L.

1793.

The British government observed a strict neutrality during the hostilities between France and Germany.

Communications between lord Grenville and the French ambassador in summer, 1793.

skill, nourished by freedom, and secured by peace, had done the rest. The prosperity of the country was beyond the precedent of any former time, and was evidently more abundant from the advantages of neutrality in the midst of surrounding war. The British government was fully aware of the blessings of peace, and the British sovereign had uniformly adhered to the strictest neutrality, and also to a rigid forbearance from any interference in the internal affairs of France. As soon as the king of France had announced to Britain the commencement of a war between the German powers and his dominions, the court of London issued a proclamation, enjoining his majesty's subjects to receive no commission from any enemy of the French king; and in no way to act hostilely to him or his people, under the severest penalties.⁹ His majesty's subjects observed these injunctions, and no complaint of aggression was alleged either by the French king or nation. Chauvelin, the French ambassador, applied to the British secretary on the 24th of May, stating, that the proclamation published a few days before against seditious writings, contained expressions which might, contrary to the intentions of the British ministry, encourage an idea that France was considered as inimical to the internal tranquillity of England, and requested his application might be communicated to parliament. Lord Grenville's reply represented that Mr. Chauvelin had deviated (he was convinced unintentionally) from the rules of this kingdom in applying to the British minister to communicate to parliament any subject of diplomatic discussion; but assured the French minister of the cordiality of the British sovereign. Chauvelin acknowledged his mistake, and expressed his satisfaction at the assurances of amity which the British minister's answers had conveyed. On the 18th of June, Mr. Chauvelin delivered a note, stating that by the proceedings of the German potentates, the balance of Europe, the independence of the different powers, the general peace, every consideration which at all times has fixed the attention of the English government, was at once exposed and threatened; and inviting his Britannic majesty,

⁹ See Debrett's State Papers, 25th May, 1793.

for the general security, to interfere with his mediation. His majesty adhering rigidly to the neutrality, replied, that consistently with his impartial determination, he could not propose an intervention when not solicited by both parties.^r On the 11th of July 1792, a small fleet sailed from Portsmouth, under the command of admiral lord Hood, to perform naval evolutions in the channel. The whole squadron consisted only of five ships of the line, besides frigates and sloops: it had but a fortnight's provision on board, and had manifestly no other destination than a sea review. The matter, however, was so magnified in France, and was represented in such a false light, that on the 26th of July, an immediate armament of thirty ships of the line was proposed in the national assembly, and the marine committee was ordered to draw up a report on the subject, and present it within a few days.^s But Mr. Chauvelin having inquired into the object and circumstances of this squadron, was satisfied that its purpose was not hostile; and the French government and nation were convinced that Britain had no design of taking any part with their enemies.^t His Britannic majesty being informed of the suspension of the king's executive power by the decree of the 10th of August, directed his secretary of state,^u Mr. Dundas, to write to lord Gower the British ambassador at Paris, that the exercise of the executive power having been withdrawn from his christian majesty, the credentials of the ambassador were no longer valid, and that he should return to England. This order his majesty deemed a necessary consequence from his determination of neutrality;^x because the continuance of his representative at Paris, treating as the sovereign power that party which had overturned the constitution recently established, would have been an interference in the internal affairs of France, by an acknowledgment

On the deposition of the king of the French, our sovereign orders his ambassador to leave Paris.

This order a necessary consequence of our determination of neutrality.

^r See the series of correspondence between lord Grenville and Mr. Chauvelin, in Debrett's State Papers, from May 24, to July 8th, 1792.

^s See the Moniteur, 28th July, 1792.

^t See Moniteurs of July 1792, and Marsh's History of the Politics of Great Britain and France, chapter viii.

^u Lord Grenville happening to be out of town when this intelligence arrived, that part of his official business was performed by his colleague.

^x The reader will see the arguments on this subject minutely and accurately detailed in Marsh's History of the Politics of Great Britain and France.

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1792.
Careful
avoidance
of interference
in the internal
affairs
of France.

Applica-
tion of the
emperor
and king of
Naples to
his Britan-
nic majes-
ty to re-
fuse shel-
ter to mur-
derers.

Strict ad-
herence to
neutrality
by Britain.

of the republican party, in preference to the loyalists and constitutionalists. Our king, conformably to the same cautious and discriminating policy, which would not pledge to the one side his virtual support, repeated his declarations, that he would not support the other, or in any way interfere in the internal arrangements of France.¹ Lord Gower having communicated his royal master's orders, and the reasons wherein they were founded, to Mr. Le Brun, minister for foreign affairs, he expressed the regret of the executive council that the ambassador was to be withdrawn, but its satisfaction at his majesty's continued assurance of neutrality, and determination not to interfere in the internal affairs of France.² In the month of September, the emperor and king of Naples stated to his Britannic majesty their apprehensions, that the atrocities of Paris would extend to the lives of the royal family, and expressed their hopes, that should such a nefarious crime be committed, his majesty would grant no asylum to the perpetrators.³ With a request so conformable to justice, humanity, a sense of moral obligation, and an abhorrence of enormous wickedness, the king complied, and induced his allies the states general to form the same resolution. Here there was certainly no deviation from neutrality, no interference in the constitution of the French polity, unless a declared purpose to refuse shelter to a party that shall commit an atrocious murder, be an interference in that party's private concerns. When the theatre of advancing conquest approached so near the united Netherlands, the king declared his resolution to adhere to their mutual alliance, and at the same time expressed his conviction that the belligerent parties would not violate the neutrality of the states general. From the time of the deposition of the king, Chauvelin could not properly be considered as ambassador from the monarch of France. Nevertheless the British government not only permitted him to reside in London, but even negotiated with him when he was agent for the executive council; and lord Grenville as-

¹ See Debrett's State Papers, 17th August, 1792.

² Brissot and his party deemed the recal of the ambassador a hostile step: but admitted there had been none before. See Marsh, chap. ix.

³ A Debrett's State Papers, September 20th.

sured him "that outward forms would be no hindrance to "his Britannic majesty, whenever the question related to "explanations, which might be satisfactory and advantageous to both parties;" and Mr. Pitt declared to the same gentleman, that it was his desire to avoid a war, and to receive a proof of the same sentiments from the French ministry.^b MR. PITT AND HIS COADJUTORS WERE UNIFORMLY CONSISTENT IN MAINTAINING ONE PRINCIPLE, THAT THE INTERNAL CHANGES OF FRANCE DID NOT PRECLUDE AMITY WITH ENGLAND; and therein totally differed from Mr. Burke and his followers. No communications material to the question of aggression passed between Mr. Chauvelin and the British minister, until the decree of the 19th of November, the invasion of the rights of our allies, and the rapid advances of French conquest, aroused and alarmed Britain. There had hitherto been strict neutrality, as we have seen, on the part of England, while there had been aggression on the part of France; for that aggression satisfaction was due, and the French professed to wish a pacific adjustment. Chauvelin was instructed to open an explanatory negotiation, conformable to those professions. Ostensibly to promote this purpose, Mr. Marat, now foreign minister of France, came himself to England, to confer with Mr. Pitt. In the uniform spirit of neutrality which Britain observed, his majesty avoided discussing the diplomatic capacity of the ministers who were sent by the executive council of France; because an admission of their official character would import the admission of the executorial competency of their employers; would have been a declaration in favour of a party, and consequently an interference in the internal arrangements of France. Mr. Pitt therefore did not meet Mr. Marat as the minister of England the minister of France; however they did meet, and their conversation, as detailed from Mr. Marat's communication,^c showed on the one hand, that MR. PITT

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1792.
Aggression
on the part
of France.

Aggression
on the part
of France.
Chauvelin
opens an
explanatory
negotiation.
Marat, the
French
secretary
comes to
London, to
confer with
Mr. Pitt.

^b These declarations of our two ministers are acknowledged by Brisot, in his report to the convention of the 12th of January 1793; and in the official revolutionary journal, the *Moniteur* of 15th January, 1793.

^c By Mr. Miles, in a work entitled *Authentic correspondence*. Mr. Miles was the intimate and confidential friend of Mr. Marat.

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1792.

Marat justifies on revolutionary principles the opening of the Scheldt, though contrary to the established law of nations. Mr. Chauvelin supports the same doctrine in his correspondence with lord Grenville,

and professes the decree of 19th Nov. not intended against Britain.

EARNESTLY DESIRED TO PRESERVE PEACE WITH FRANCE; and on the other, that the French agent endeavoured to explain the obnoxious decree as not intended to apply to Britain. On the subject of the Scheldt, Marat stated that the order of the council, and the decree of the national convention concerning that navigation, founded on the most sacred principles of Gallic liberty, were irrevocable, and thus admitted that the internal change in France was by its votaries considered as authorizing them to violate the rights of foreign and independent nations; and that they were resolved to make no satisfaction for an injury inflicted, in conformity to this principle.^d The same questions were agitated with much greater particularity of detail, and reciprocation of argument, between monsieur Chauvelin and lord Grenville, in the latter end of November, and during the month of December. Chauvelin maintained the right of the French to open the navigation of the Scheldt: he however declared, by order of the executive council, that if at the end of the war the Belgians were unfettered, and in full possession of their liberty relinquished this navigation, the French would decline all opposition. This answer evinced a firm and unalterable resolution of adhering not only to the infraction of the treaty of Utrecht, but also of dismembering the Netherlands from the Austrian dominions, and making them dependent on France: he obstinately contended that the decree of the 19th of November could have no reference to Great Britain, and declared that if Holland continued to observe neutrality, France would not invade her dominions. These professions the British minister would not believe, because they were totally contradicted by actual conduct. Concerning the decree of the convention, the application of these principles to the British king's dominions was unequivocally shown, by the public reception given to the promoters of sedition in this country, and by the speeches made to them precisely at the time of this decree, and since on several different occasions. At the very time France declared she would not invade Holland, she had

^d See Marat's letter to his colleague. Debrett's State Papers, 2d December, 1792.

already attacked that nation by opening the Scheldt. France, (said the British minister) can have no right to annul the stipulations relative to the Scheldt, unless she have also the right to set aside equally all the other treaties, between all the powers of Europe, and all the other rights of England, or of her allies. She can even have no pretence to interfere in the question of opening the Scheldt, unless she were the sovereign of the Low Countries, or had the right to dictate laws to all Europe. England will never consent that France shall arrogate the power of annulling at her pleasure, and under the pretence of a pretended natural right, of which she makes herself the only judge, the political system of Europe, established by solemn treaties, and guaranteed by the consent of all the powers. This government, adhering to the maxims which it has followed for more than a century, will also never see with indifference that France shall make herself, either directly or indirectly, sovereign of the Low Countries, or general arbitress of the rights and liberties of Europe. If France is really desirous of maintaining friendship and peace with England, she must show herself disposed to renounce her views of aggression and aggrandizement, and to confine herself within her own territory, without insulting other governments, disturbing their tranquillity, and violating their rights;^e but the French government positively refused to satisfy Britain for the violation of treaties.^f

CHAP.

L.

1792.
Reply of
the British
minister.

He declares Britain will not suffer France to annul at pleasure the established law of nations.

Britain requires France to forego her projects of invading and revolutionizing other countries.

IN the consideration of peace or war with the French republic, the proceedings of the French rulers, the negotiation between their agents and British ministers, and the conduct of our executive and legislative government, are so much interwoven, that it is frequently necessary to change the scene to review their process of action and reaction, and exhibit cause and effect. Before we follow this negotiation to its close, it is necessary to present to our readers, both internal legislative proceedings, and foreign acts by which the negotiation was effected. The great objects of alarm, both to the British government,

^e See correspondence between lord Grenville and Mr. Chauvelin, in December 1792. State papers for that period.
^f See Chauvelin's note to lord Grenville, Dec. 27th.

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1792.

Alien bill,

is passed
into a law.Augment-
ation of the
army and
navy.Proceed-
ings at
Paris.

and to the principal part of the British nation, were the rapid advances of French principles, and the rapid progress of French power. The number of aliens at this time in Britain, far surpassed the usual influx. Of these, many so conducted themselves as to justify a suspicion of their evil intentions towards this country. Agreeably to the system of preventive policy already recorded, the attorney general proposed to parliament to provide for the public tranquillity by subjecting the resort and residence of aliens to certain regulations. All foreigners arriving in the kingdom were, by the plan of ministers, to explain their reasons for coming into this country, to give up all arms except those commonly used for defence or dress. In their several removals through the country, they were to use passports, by which their actual residence, or occasional movements might be manifest, and their conduct easily observed. Those who received eleemosynary support, were to be distributed in districts where they would be more liable to the vigilance of the civil power. Particular attention was to be paid to foreigners who had visited this kingdom within the present year, who should hereafter come without obvious reasons, and be thus more obnoxious to prudent suspicion. Such were the objects and chief provisions of the law known by the name of the *alien bill*. Those members of both houses who had denied the existence of the dangerous doctrines, consistently with their opinions, opposed a measure, which upon their hypothesis was certainly not necessary. Admitting, however, that there was external danger from abroad, they unanimously agreed to ministerial motions for the augmentation of the army and navy.

WHILE the British legislature was making these dispositions against internal and foreign danger, an event took place in France, the flagrant injustice and ferocious cruelty of which most fatally manifested the pitch of infuriate wickedness at which the jacobins were arrived. The republicans now consisted of two parties, the Girondists and the Mountain. The former contained the principal part of the literary class, ingenious, and eloquent enemies of monarchy; the latter, the most daring and blood thirsty directors of the murderous mobs, the votaries

of anarchy. Though men of genius, the leaders of the Gironde were much more brilliant than solid.^g Formed to the metaphysical theories long so prevalent in France, they carried their visionary abstractions to practical life. To subtle paradox and ingenious hypothesis, which are commonly the effusions of literary retirement, many of them joined profligate corruption and rapacity that would grasp all the wealth and power which stimulate injustice in the active world, with an excessive vanity, which represented all the objects of their cupidity as within the reach of their invention and enterprise. This wildness of speculative sciolism, this depravity of principle and pursuit, and this overweening self estimation dictated their internal and external politics: impelled them to seek a republic not suitable to the human character; in which levelling others, they might themselves enjoy boundless riches and unlimited sway; and to fancy that their talents and address could employ both the weakness and strength of various parties, in their own and other countries as instruments for the execution of their designs. To extend the circle of their proposed dominion, and also that preeminence which Frenchmen have always sought, they formed their boundless schemes of national aggrandizement;^h of embroiling mankind in war; subjugating all countries by French principles and French power, and thus subjecting the whole to themselves; new as these men were in some part of the composition of their characters, yet in others as old as vanity, avarice, and profligacy, they transcended every bound of morality or religion. Possessing great energy they in a considerable degree attained, and for a short time preserved the objects of their desire; but wanting profound wisdom, and overrating their own talents of managing tools, they ultimately fell by the instruments of their exaltation. As the great operators in the several changes of the revolution were the Parisian rabble, the demagogues who could most readily and effectually direct the mob, possessed a formidable power either instrumental or supreme according to the ability and skill

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1792.
Gironde
party:

their literary ability, boundless ambition and wild projects.

^g The chief philosophical scholar among them was Condorcet. Brissot was animated, enthusiastic, and operative, but by no means profound.

^h See Brissot's works *passim*; also the writings of other Girondists.

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1792.

The Mountain
blood thirsty and ferocious.
Robespierre,
Danton,
and Marat.

of its possessors. The members of the legislature, most ferociously violent against the king, were the Mountain. These, less literary in their acquirements, less metaphysical in their harangues, exhibited in their manners a coarseness which the others, educated as gentlemen, had not been able completely to attain, and were much more popular among the governing sansculottes. The head of this party was Robespierre, a man much inferior to the Girondists in cultivated understanding, polished eloquence, and those talents which would have had weight with an ingenious and refined audience ; but by the uncouth plainness of his speeches, and the energy of his invectives, he was well fitted to govern a mob at any time ; and by his stern and sanguinary disposition peculiarly suited to the Parisian mob, panting for regicide. Next in power was Danton, equally blood thirsty and ambitious, less strong and direct in his means, but more dexterous. Subordinate to these was Marat ; a half lettered editor of a newspaper, hideous in appearance, loathsome by disease,ⁱ and squalid in attire ; he was passionately desirous of reducing all eminence and distinction to the same low level with himself ; and long the hireling of Orleans, he imbibed against the king that rancorous gall which he had been paid for disseminating through the populace. Bloody in his disposition, ardent in his cruel exhortations ; he was the delight of the murderous mob, because in so many points coinciding with themselves. By these leaders chiefly, assisted by many others of the Mountain members, the Parisian rabble was directed. The Gironde party saw the character of these demagogues, but in their eager efforts to subdue the constitutionalists, and overthrow kingly power, had cooperated with the Mountain ; intending, and for a considerable time appearing, to use them as tools. The insurrection of the 10th of August was the work of the Girondists for the subversion of monarchy : Danton was a most powerful auxiliary in the massacres of that bloody day. So effectually instrumental to the execution of the Girondist designs, the mob and the leaders of the Mountain, more sensibly felt their own re-

ⁱ See Adolphus's Memoirs. Life of Marat.

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1792.

statless power. The Gironde party were totally unrestrained by conscience from seeking their ends through means however wicked ; yet they do not appear to have had a desire of shedding blood merely for pleasure. Blood they would not spare where they conceived it to answer their purpose ; the butchery of their fellow creatures, however, they did not seek as a *pastime*. Not so the sansculottes, who manifestly sought massacre for its own sake.^k Before the beginning of September the power of the Mountain was very greatly increased. Marat and his associates under Danton and Robespierre, were the ringleaders in the September carnage. Brissot had formed the plan of a national convention, and a republic : the leaders of the Mountain were contriving that the republic, which they had been instrumental in creating should be directed by themselves, and that the national convention should contain a majority of their creatures. When the assembly which he had projected met, Brissot found that the Mountain was becoming very strong. The executive council, however, still consisted of Girondists, and, the army being commanded by officers of that party, they remained formidable. The Gironde party, desirous of establishing democracy, appeared to have had no intention of attacking the life of their sovereign, unless they conceived it to interfere with the preservation of the republic and their own power. From the German retreat, and the subsequent success of the French arms, they entertained no apprehensions of the restoration of monarchy, and wished to save the king's life : the opposite party, not merely murderers from policy, but sanguinary from the infuriate disposition of the multitude, desired the blood of Lewis. The jacobin clubs, now leagued with the Mountain, promoted the savage barbarity. Their leaders, especially Robespierre, had formed views of the most unbounded ambition, and conceived that, by involving the people in the guilt of regicide, they would bind them entirely to their system, and overpower their adversaries the Gironde and all other parties. The

The Girondists wish to spare the life of the king.

The Mountain and the mob desire his massacre.

^k What but the mere delight in human carnage could have prompted the greater part of the September massacres ? See details in Playfair's Jacobinism.

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1792.

Pusillanimity of
Brisot and
the other
Girondists

A decree
is passed
for bringing
the
king to trial.

Attempts
to break
the spirit
of Lewis.

Girondists, superior as they were in genius and literature to the Mountain, were less daring and intrepid, and besides, had more to dread, as their adversaries were supported by the governing mob.^l There were, however, still great numbers throughout the provinces, and even in Paris itself, who ardently desired to spare the blood of their king. By firmness and magnanimity, the Girondists, possessing the executorial functions, might have rallied round the metropolis a sufficient force for saving innocent blood; but they did not display the courage of resolute determination, without which lawless ambition will not retain newly usurped power. The proceedings were pusillanimous half measures, more contemptible in their inefficacy than the diabolical conduct of their adversaries; and though less detestable in their operation, equally noxious in the result. The Mountain persuaded the populace that Lewis had betrayed his country, and conspired against France with its enemies: on these grounds they instigated the mob to demand his trial.^m After various preliminary discussions, the Girondists being afraid to express their sentiments, a decree was passed for bringing to trial a personage whose life, by every principle of expediency and policy, ought to have been sacred under any well regulated constitution; and whose person was inviolable according to the polity existing in France at the time when the acts charged were alleged to have been committed. To prevent the public mind from hearing innocence calling for justice, they suffered not the king to know that his life was sought. From the fidelity of a zealous domesticⁿ Lewis of France first learned that a perjured banditti prepared publicly to destroy their monarch's life, which every federate Frenchman had sworn to protect. To break down the soul of their sovereign by accumulated misery, they debarred him from the sight and converse of his wife and children. They hoped that the strength of his benevolent affections, thus deprived of their dearest objects, would crush the faculties of his mind, and would disable him from vindicating his innocence, and exposing the enormity of their blood thirsty

^l See *guz*, vol. iii. p. 6.

^m *Ibid*, p. 7.

ⁿ See *Clery*.

guilt ; but their purpose was frustrated. The dreadful situation in which their wickedness had placed him, roused the energies of a mind which manifested itself not unworthy of the descendant of Henry. With every circumstance of degradation that the upstart insolence of unmerited power could bestow, he was brought to the bar, and his charges were read. They consisted of two general heads ; first, of crimes committed before his acceptance of the constitution ; secondly, of crimes committed after his acceptance of the constitution. The evidence was composed of interrogatories put to the accused himself, and of documents charged to have been written with his privity and concurrence. The charges before his acceptance of the constitution he successively answered, by declaring what every hearer well knew, that the power then vested in him authorized the several acts, and consequently could now be no subject of question : the accusations for conduct subsequent to the acceptance he either showed to be agreeable to his constitutional powers, or denied to be such as were represented. In every particular case he protested he had acted according to the best of his judgment for the good of his subjects. The allegation of conspiracy with the enemies of his country he firmly denied. The written evidence on which he was accused contained neither proof nor grounds for probable presumption that he was culpable, much less guilty : the assertions rested upon no evidence.^o When the charge for the prosecution was finished, the king applied for permission to be allowed counsel. Various emigrants^p informed of the charges, proffered exculpatory testimony : Lewis's judges would hear no evidence but on one side : the accusation was totally unsupported by proof. His defence was conducted, first by himself, with great magnanimity and ability, and afterwards by his counsel. It was glaringly manifest, that his accusers had totally failed in making out their case ; that there was not a shadow of foundation to justify an arraignment, much less evidence to autho-

Trial.

Not the slightest proof of guilt.

^o For the proof of this assertion we refer to the reports of the trial.

^p Lally Tolleudal, Bertrand, Narbon, Cazales, and Bouillé offered, at the risk of their lives, to go to Paris, and bear testimony to the falsity of the principal charges against the king, wherein they respectively were said to have been agents. *Ozridge's Annual Register*, 1793.

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L.

1798.

Condem-
nation and
sentence.

Self pos-
session and
magnanim-
ity of the
persecuted
monarch.

Last inter-
view of
Lewis with
his family.

rize a penal sentence, even against the meanest subject. Before judgment was passed, it was proposed to appeal to the people. The national convention, it was said, was not a tribunal of judges, but an assembly of lawgivers; and in assuming a judicial power they were usurpers. The people, their constituents, had not delegated to the national convention the power of trying causes. This objection, though unanswerably valid, had no weight with men determined to commit murder: for the appeal there were two hundred and eighty-three, against it four hundred and twenty-four. It being resolved by such a majority that the king should suffer punishment, it was strenuously contended by one party that he should be confined, by the other that he should be put to death. In a meeting of seven hundred the bloody verdict was passed by a majority of five! The iniquitous sentence being delivered after midnight, on the 20th of January, it was that day, at two o'clock, announced to the king, that the following day he was to be executed. With unmoved countenance hearing the decree read, he requested permission to see his family. The hardened hearts of his murderers did not refuse him this last boon.^a He himself first conveyed to his queen, sister, and children, the agonising intelligence. During the dismal interview, retaining his firmness, he inculcated on his son the transient nature of sub-lunary grandeur; called to his mind what his father had been, and then was; bid him trust for happiness to that virtue and religion which no human efforts could efface. Late in the evening his family left him, trusting^r to see him the next morning once more. Prepared by conscious innocence, uprightness, and piety, for meeting death, neither guilt nor fear disturbed his rest. He slept soundly^s till five o'clock, the hour at which he ordered his faithful valet to awaken him for the last time.^t His family he now resolved to forbear again pressing to his arms. The bitterness of death the tranquil resignation of the christian regarded with complacency; the bitterness of parting grief the brother, father, and husband could not endure. He sought from religion, in his last hours, that consolation which, in

^a Clarendon's Journal, 235.

^r Ibid. 239.

^s Ibid. 242.

^t Ibid.

the zenith of power, splendor and magnificence, as well as in humiliation and captivity, she had never failed to afford. The attendance of a clergyman, a favour refused him ever since his imprisonment in the Temple by his atheistical oppressors, was, at his earnest entreaty, granted him on the day of his massacre. Being now assisted in the external rights, as well as encouraged in the internal sentiments of devotion, and having opened his soul to a priest whose sanctity he revered, he, for a short interval, returned to the concerns of this world; delivered to his faithful servant his last charges and commissions^u to be conveyed to his family and his friends. The messengers of murder arrived; and he was conducted from the Temple. When he was ascending the scaffold his executioners seized his hands in order to tie them behind his back: as he was not prepared for this last insult, he appeared disposed to repel it, and his countenance already beamed with indignation. Mr. Edgeworth, his clerical attendant, sensible that resistance would be vain, and might expose the royal sufferer to outrages more violent, entreated his sovereign to submit.^x He presented his hands to the ministers of blood: they tied them with so much force as to call forth another remonstrance. He now mounted the scaffold amidst the noise of drums: bound and disfigured as he was, he advanced with a firm step, and requesting the drums to cease, was obeyed. He then, with a steady voice and in a distinct tone, addressed the people to the following purport. "Frenchmen, I die innocent of all the crimes which have been imputed to me; and I forgive my enemies. I implore God, from the bottom of my heart, to pardon them, and not take vengeance on the French nation for the blood about to be shed." As he was proceeding, the inhuman Santerre,^y who presided at the execution, ordered

^u At seven o'clock (says Clery), the king, coming out of his closet, called to me, and taking me within the recess of the window, said, "You will give this seal to my son, this ring to the queen, and assure her that it is with pain I part with it: this little packet contains the hair of all my family; you will give her that too. Tell the queen, my dear children, and my sister, that although I promised to see them this morning, I have resolved to spare them the pangs of so cruel a separation: Tell them how much it costs me to go without receiving their embraces once more!" Clery 249.

^x The words of the priest were, "Sir, this added humiliation is another circumstance in which your majesty's sufferings resemble those of that Saviour who will soon be your recompense." y Annual Register, 1793.

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the drums to beat, and the executioners to perform their office. The king's voice was drowned in the noise of drums, and the clamours of the soldiery. As the fatal guillotine descended on his head, the confessor exclaimed, "Son of St. Lewis, ascend into heaven!" The bleeding head was exhibited to the populace, some of whom shouted, *Vive la republique!* but the majority appeared to be struck dumb with horror, while the affection of many led them to bathe their handkerchiefs in his blood. That every barbarous insult might be offered to the remains of the murdered prince, the body was conveyed in a cart to the church yard of St. Madelaine, and thrown into a grave, which was instantly filled with quick lime, and a guard placed over it till the corpse was consumed.

THE execution of Lewis XVI. violated every principle of justice, and every rule of law, which affords security to men bound together in society. By the established constitution, and which subsisted during all the time that he had any power to act, his person was inviolable.² By the law of the land he was amenable to no criminal court: the most tyrannical of all decrees only, a law passed after the alleged guilt could subject him to penal inquiry, whatever might have been his crime. But if his person had not been by law inviolable, the assembly which presumed to try him was not a competent court. The national convention, even though admitted to be the delegates of the people fairly chosen, were not delegates beyond the extent of their commissions: they were chosen by the people as their legislative representatives only. In exercising a judicial power, they were not a lawful tribunal, but a banditti of usurpers.³ If the national convention had been a competent court, the charges adduced were principally irrelevant; some of the acts alleged referred to a period in which the constitution had been different, and in which Lewis had simply exercised the powers which were then vested in the king: his former conduct they had sanctioned by conferring on him the supreme executive authority by the new constitution. Most of the accusations against

² Chap. xlvii. ³ This argument was very forcibly and eloquently employed by the constitutionalists and Girondists against the murderous Mountain. See speeches of the convention, *passim*.

him subsequent to his acceptance were constitutional exertions of his prerogative. The charges of corresponding with emigrants and foreign powers for the purpose of overturning the liberties of France, were supported by no authentic evidence. Thus a personage criminally responsible to no French tribunal, was tried by a set of men that were not a legal court, for charges not criminal by the law of the land, if proved; or charges which, if criminal, were not proved. Condemned and executed in those circumstances, he presented to France an awful monument of the ferocious disposition by which it was now governed. The massacre of Lewis demonstrated that liberty, law, and justice, were vanished and exhibited the prevalence of a system which terror only could maintain.

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Complicated iniquity of the process in principle, substance, and mode. An awful monument of the doctrines and sentiments that governed France.

WHILE the French government was preparing this dreadful catastrophe, it instructed its agent at London to demand the virtual recognition of its establishment and authority, in the acceptance of an accredited ambassador. His Britannic majesty, considering the present rulers as only one party, and from the rapid vicissitudes of sway, a temporary and shortlived party, in conformity to his principles of neutrality, would not receive an ambassador, because such admission would have acknowledged as the rulers of France a particular junto; and violated his resolution and promise not to interfere in the internal affairs of France. But though he would not recognise the paramount faction of the day, as the firmly established and permanent rulers of France, yet while these powers did exist, and menaced England with hostility, he did not forbear to repeat his statements of the injuries which he had received, and the satisfaction he demanded; and since that continued to be refused, to prepare the means of enforcing redress. Chauvelin, by the instructions of the executive council, still persisted to refuse satisfaction for their aggressions, demanding the recognition of the republic, and the acceptance of an ambassador. He farther remonstrated against the alien bill, and the naval and military preparations, imputed hostile intentions to England, and notified that if the preparations continued, France would prepare for war. In conformity to the principles and objects of the decree of the 19th of November, he intimated an intention to appeal to

Chauvelin demands from Britain the recognition of the French republic, and the admission of its ambassador. The British government refuses.

Chauvelin remonstrates against the alien bill.

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1793.

On the
massacre
of the king
he is or-
dered to
leave Bri-
tain.

the people of England against the government. His Britannic majesty, persevering in his former conduct, declared he would continue his preparations until France should relinquish her ambitious aggression.^b On the 24th of January, 1793, intelligence arrived at London of the melancholy catastrophe of Lewis XVI. His majesty immediately directed a notification to be sent to Mr. Chauvelin, that the character with which he had been invested at the British court, and of which the functions had been so long suspended, being now entirely terminated by the fatal death of his most christian majesty, he had no longer any public character here. The king, after such an event, could permit his residence here no longer: within eight days he must quit the kingdom, but every attention should be paid him that was due to the character of the ambassador of his most christian majesty, which he had exercised at this court. A negotiation was still open on the frontiers of Holland, between lord Auckland and general Dumourier, but the French persisted in refusing to relinquish their invasion of our allies, and in demanding the recognition of the republic; which requisitions being totally inadmissible, matters were not accommodated. The French rulers, finding Britain inflexibly determined on adherence to the rights of independent nations, by a decree of the convention, declared war against Great Britain with acclamations, and soon after against Holland, which their forces were ready to invade. Britain and Holland, in their own defence, returned a declaration of hostilities; and thus commenced the war between Great Britain and the French republic.

France
declares
war against
Britain and
Holland.

France the
aggressor.

THE hostile advances of France, and the refused satisfaction for an aggression totally inconsistent with the law of nations, and existing treaties upon rights which we were bound to protect, combined with their attempts to excite insurrection in our own country, and followed by the declaration of war, render it evident that the French were the aggressors, and that Britain had a just RIGHT to go to war. THE EXPEDIENCY of that measure,

^b See series of correspondence between Mr. Chauvelin and lord Grenville. Debrett's State Papers of 27th December 1792, to 27th January 1793, both inclusive.

however, is a different question, and perhaps few subjects have occurred in political history, which have produced stronger arguments on both sides; in which men of the most patriotic hearts, and wisest heads, drew more opposite conclusions, according to the light in which they viewed this immense and complicated subject. Never was there a question in which candour, founded on cool and comprehensive reflection, examining the mass of evidence and reasoning on both sides, would more readily allow laudable and meritorious motives to total diversity of opinion and conduct. Yet never did there occur a contest in which party zeal generated more illiberal constructions and more malignant interpretation of intentions.

THE sentiments of Britons on the subject of the French revolution, may be divided into two classes; those who wished the establishment in England of a system resembling the French republic, to the utter subversion of the British constitution; and those who, varying in their plans and measures, desired the preservation of the British constitution. Most of the British democrats and jacobins were inimical to a war with France, because it interrupted the communication by which they expected to establish their favourite system; but some of them were said to have rejoiced at the hostilities, because they conceived war would excite such discontent as would lead to a revolution. But far was the opposition to the war from being confined to democrats, jacobins, and the enemies of our polity. Of those who disapproved of hostilities, many, in the general tenor of their conduct, evinced themselves the firm friends of constitutional liberty, and monarchy. They sought the same ends, the preservation of the British constitution, and the maintenance of British security, but deemed them attainable by peace instead of war. The friends of the British constitution, both without and within parliament, for and against the war, in a great measure took the tone of opinions advanced and maintained by three of the highest parliamentary characters; Edmund Burke, Charles James Fox, and William Pitt. Burke continued to deem the French revolutionists, of every opinion, kind, and succession, the determined and inveterate enemies of religion, virtue,

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I.

1793.

Opinions
and senti-
ments of
different
parties.

Views of
messrs.
Burke,
Fox, and
Pitt re-
spectively
on the
French
revolution,
and the
war with
France.

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1793.

Messrs.
Burke and
Pitt sup-
port the
war on dif-
ferent
grounds.

civilization, manners, rank, order, property, throughout the world; and eagerly and resolutely bent on disseminating disorder, vice, and misery; to regard them as pursuing these ends, not only in the ardent violence of infuriate passion, but also in the principled and systematic constancy of depraved, but energetic and powerful reason. He reckoned them totally incorrigible by any internal means; and therefore strenuously inculcated an external force to overwhelm an assemblage of beings, who, in his estimation, unless conquered, would destroy and devastate mankind. Long before^c the commencement of hostilities between France and Germany, he had suggested a confederation of the European powers for the subjugation of men whom he thought revolutionary monsters; and had uniformly written and spoken to the same purport. He eagerly promoted war, not merely for the purpose of procuring satisfaction for a specific aggression, which, in both plain and figurative language, he described as comparatively insignificant, but for the restoration in France of the hierarchy, aristocracy, and monarchy, the downfall of which, was, he thought, the cause of French ambition and encroachment, menacing the destruction of all Europe. Mr. Burke desired war with the French revolutionists, to overthrow the new system, and to crush the new principles. Mr. Fox continuing to impute the increasing outrages of the new votaries of liberty to glowing enthusiasm, still conceived that the enthusiasm would subside if left to its own operation. External force, he predicted, would not only preserve, but increase the vehement heat, which might otherwise cool. The recent experience of the effects of the German invasion, confirmed him in this opinion. He thought that an attempt to force the establishment of monarchy, would drive France to become a military democracy: the project was unwise, because it was impracticable in its object, as well as pernicious in its means. Criminal, Mr. Fox said, as the French republicans were in their various confiscations and massacres, and in the murder of their king, their acts were no crimes against England; if the French nation choose to abolish existing orders, and to annihilate monarchy, they were not

^c See his posthumous works, memorial written in autumn, 1791.

invading the rights of England ; such a purpose of going to war was totally unjust ; our efforts would spill the blood of our brave countrymen, would overwhelm us with additional debts ; we might wage war year after year against France, as against America ; we should make no progress, we should in the end be obliged to conclude a peace, recognising the form of government which should then be established in France. The aggressions alleged against the French were too inconsiderable to justify war as a prudent measure, and if these were the sole causes of contest, they might be easily compromised, were Britain in earnest. We ought to receive an ambassador from the ruling powers of France, because they were the ruling powers.^d With all foreign nations we considered neither the history of the establishment, nor the justice of the tenure, but the simple fact that the government with which we treated was established ; such also was the conduct of other nations respecting England ; France, Spain, and other monarchies, negotiated with Cromwell ; England ought now to pursue the same course : we ought to treat with those who possessed the power of doing what we wanted, as for the same reasons we frequently negotiated with Algiers, Turkey, and Morocco, however much we reprobated their respective governments. Mr. Pitt was far from coinciding^e with Mr. Burke, in proposing to carry on a war for the restoration of the monarchical government. France had manifested schemes of unbounded aggrandizement, actually invaded our allies, and declared her resolution to encourage revolt in other countries. By the reciprocal action and reaction of her principles and power, she sought the unlimited extension of both. Attacking us in such a disposition, and with such views, she compelled us to go to war for the repression of principles, and the reduction of power endangering our security. We ought not to recognise a government consisting merely of a faction, and not having the marks of probable stability, in the cool and deliberate approbation of the people. From a party so uncertain and change-

^d See speeches of Mr. Fox on war with France, in January and February 1793. Parliamentary Debates.

^e See Mr. Burke's two memorials written respectively in November 1792, and October 1793, published in his posthumous works ; and also his *regicide peace*, wherein he severely censures the objects of the allies, and the little confidence they reposed in the emigrants.

CHAP.

L.

1793.

The objects both of the ministerial party and opposition in parliament constitutional, though sought under different impressions, and by different means.

Public opinion favourable to war with France.

In declaring war against France, the king spoke the voice of the nation.

able, we did not choose to receive a regular ambassador, as if it were firmly fixed in the supreme power; but we did treat with the existing government. The source of war was not our refusal to treat, as many believed, or pretended to believe, but the refusal of the French leaders to make satisfaction for injuries and insults. Not the restoration of monarchy in France, but the security of Britain, being our reason for going to war, we should carry on hostilities no longer than we were in danger from the conduct and dispositions of France. As the republicans and democrats in opposing the war, coincided with messrs. Fox, Erskine, Sheridan, and other able men who were inimical to hostilities, on patriotic and constitutional grounds, many of the other party classed them, and more affected to class them, with democrats and jacobins. As on the other hand, the votaries of war were presumed, by its opponents, to seek the reestablishment of despotism in France, they were called crusaders against liberty. On the one side party zeal represented messrs. Burke and Pitt, and their respective adherents, as the abettors of tyranny; on the other, Mr. Fox and his adherents as the abettors of jacobinism and anarchy. Impartial history, viewing the individual acts and chain of conduct of these three illustrious men, finds no grounds to justify so injurious an opinion; but the strongest reasons for concluding that they and their supporters and adherents, through different means, sought the same end, the constitutional welfare of their country.

MANY as were averse to war, both on the constitutional grounds of Mr. Fox, and on the unconstitutional grounds of democrats and jacobins, that great engine of politics in a free country, public opinion, was on the whole favourable to hostilities. A sense of the actual aggression of the French republic; but much more the alarming apprehension of French principles, rendered the country desirous of a total interruption of communication with France. It was not the war of the court, of the ministers, of the privileged orders; it was A WAR OF THE GREAT MAJORITY OF THE PEOPLE OF BRITAIN. IN DECLARING WAR AGAINST FRANCE IN FEBRUARY 1793, HIS BRITANNIC MAJESTY SPOKE THE VOICE OF THE BRITISH NATION.

CHAP. LI.

Objects of Britain—the repression of French principles, and the prevention of French aggrandizement.—Sir John Scott the attorney general introduces a bill for preventing traitorous correspondence—arguments for and against—modified, passes into a law.—Motion for peace.—Reasonings of Mr. Fox respecting the war and its probable effects.—The propositions are negatived by unprecedented majorities.—Mr. Sheridan proposes an inquiry into the alleged sedition.—His motion rejected.—Motion for parliamentary reform by Mr. Grey—arguments for.—Mr. Whitbread.—Arguments against.—Proposition reprobated as peculiarly unseasonable at such a period—and rejected.—State of commercial credit, and causes of its being affected.—Mr. Pitt proposes an advance of public money on the security of mercantile commodities.—The proposition is adopted, and revives mercantile credit.—East India company's charter on the eve of expiration.—Mr. Dundas presents a masterly view of the prosperity of India under the present system.—He proposes the renewal of the charter.—His plan is passed into a law.—Measures adopted to render British India farther productive.—Plan of agricultural improvement.—Sir John Sinclair—inquiries of in Scotland and England.—Result, that agriculture is not understood and practised in proportion to the capability of the country.—proposes the establishment of a board of agriculture—the proposal adopted.—Lord Rawdon's motion respecting debtors.—Increase of the army and navy.—National supplies.—A loan.—Taxes.—Session closes.—Commencement of campaign 1793.—French invade Holland—reduce Breda.—Hundart and Gertruydenburgh surrender.—Dumourier besieges Williamstadt and Maestricht.—The British forces arrive in Holland.—The French raise the siege of Williamstadt.—Attacked by the Austrians at Winden—defeated.—French generals accuse

each other.—Dumourier evacuates the Netherlands—disapproved by the convention—privately proposes to make peace with the allies and restore monarchy—suspected by the French government—summoned to return to Paris to answer for his conduct—sounds the dispositions of the army—finding them unfavourable, deserts to the Austrians.

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LI.

1793.
Objects
of Great
Britain—
the repres-
sions of
French
principles
and the
prevention
of French
aggran-
dizement.
Sir John
Scott, the
attorney
general,
introduces
a bill for
preventing
traitorous
correspon-
dence.

Argu-
ments for
and against

THE grand purposes of the British government in its conduct respecting France were to repress the operation of revolutionary princes in this country, and to prevent the French system of aggression and aggrandizement from being longer carried into successful execution on the continent. In this twofold object originated the measures of external policy adopted by parliament during the remainder of the session, and also some of those that were confined to internal regulation.

WAR having been declared against a foreign country, it was obviously expedient to prevent correspondence between British subjects and the hostile party. To render this prohibition effectual, sir John Scott, attorney general, on the 15th of March introduced a bill for preventing, during the war, all traitorous correspondence with the king's enemies. The law of treason was founded upon a statute of the 25th of Edward III. which had been the subject of legislative exposition in different laws, enacted since that period. The acts declared treasonable in that statute were principally reducible to two heads;^f to compass, that is, to intend or project the king's death; to levy war against the king, and to abet or assist his enemies. Since that period, during wars, parliament had repeatedly passed laws which applied the general principle to the existing case; by specifically prohibiting adherence or assistance to nations at enmity with our sovereign.^g Agreeably to the original statute, and the consequent explanatory acts the present bill was framed. Former laws

^f See vol. ii. 324.

^g An act had passed in the reign of queen Anne to prevent all traitorous correspondence which prohibited any person from supplying the enemies with arms, naval or military stores, or from going out of the kingdom to the enemy's country without license. A similar act of William and Mary had carried the regulation farther; it prohibited goods and merchandises of every sort. See Statutes at large.

had, in such circumstances, prohibited British subjects from sending military stores, arms, ammunition, and provision, of various enumerated kinds. The present bill, besides interdicting these articles, prohibited purchases of French funds or French lands. The reason of this prohibition was, that, as the French government proposed to carry on war against this country by the sale of lands, British subjects if allowed to purchase such land would not only feel an interest in the property which they had thus acquired, but furnish the enemy with the means of carrying on war against ourselves. It was further proposed that no persons should be allowed to go from this country into France, without a license under his majesty's great seal; and that their neglect of this clause should be deemed a misdemeanour; and that no persons, though subjects of this country, coming from France, should be allowed to enter this kingdom without a passport or license, or giving to a magistrate such security as he should require. The last regulation was to prevent the insurance of vessels which should traffic with France.

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THE bill was opposed as inconsistent with the treason laws of Edward III. the principles of the British constitution, with justice and commercial policy. The provision against Englishmen returning to the country, was the bestowal of a power on the king to banish, during the war, every British subject now in France. Though he might return, in certain cases, by giving security, who were to be the judges of the amount of that security? This was to be left to a magistrate: here one man was to be put under the discretion of another, who might render his return impossible, by exacting security to an amount that could not be given.^b The restriction upon the purchase of lands was represented as extremely impolitic: it was alleged to be founded upon an absurd supposition, that Britons having here the most permanent security for their money, would send their capital to France, where they could have no security. Frenchmen, on the other hand, found property exposed to the revolutionary grasp in their own country; and, to escape spoliation, had sent many and large sums of money to Britain to be vested in our funds, and also

^b See speeches of mcsrs. Erskine and Fox. Parliamentary debates, 1793.

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great quantities of other precious moveables : as proscription advanced they must wish to send more to the place of safety. If the present regulations were adopted, France would no doubt follow the example : we should render her government the most essential service, by forcing Frenchmen to employ their money in their own funds. Instead, therefore, of preventing, as proposed, the efflux of money to the country of our enemies, we would prevent its influx into our own ; and by the project of withholding resources from the enemy, we should add to his strength. The bill was defended as conformable both to the general law, and to special acts passed in periods of war. The particular provisions most strongly combatted were supported as necessary in the precise and specific nature of the present war ; the circumstances in which it was founded, and the projected resources of the enemy. After many debates, the two clauses most severely reprobated, concerning the return of British subjects, and the purchase of property in France, were abandoned. Undergoing these important changes, and several much less material modifications, the proposed bill was passed into a law.

Modified,
it passes in-
to a law.

Motions
for peace.

REPEATED motions were made in the houses of parliament in order to procure peace. Of these the most important was a proposition of Mr. Fox, after the first successes of the allies, and the retreat of the French armies from the Netherlands.¹ Intelligence having arrived, that the French, leaving the scenes of recent invasion and aggression, had retired within their ancient frontiers ; Mr. Fox, professing to consider the avowed objects of the war as now attained, proposed an inquiry into the reason of its continuance ; and moved an address to his majesty praying him to make peace. Supposing, for the sake of argument, the present a just, prudent, and necessary war at the beginning, he contended that the alleged reasons no longer existed. Holland, our ally, was not now exposed to any attack : France would willingly purchase peace by insuring the continuance of that safety, whereas he was afraid perseverance in

Reasonings
of Mr. Fox
on the in-
expedien-
cy of the
war, and
predicting
its effects.

¹ The historical narrative of these events is somewhat subsequent : I here only mention a result on which Mr. Fox founded part of his reasoning.

carrying on war along with the combined powers, would again expose her to danger. The French had, no doubt, manifested designs of aggrandizement, but these had arisen from the successful repulsion of confederate attack. Besides, must England go to war with every continental power that perpetrates injustice? Was not the conduct of the partitioners of Poland equal in infamy and iniquity to the aggressions of France? Were the people of England to suffer all the miseries of war because the people of France were unjust, when that injustice, be it ever so atrocious, was violating no right of Englishmen? They had, indeed, threatened the security of his majesty's allies; but now confined within their own territories, they were occupied in defending their frontiers against the combined powers. The danger apprehended from their former conquest was no longer a subject of just uneasiness and alarm. The French were, at present, in great internal confusion and distress; and Britain could form no views of aggrandizement from the situation of her adversary. Even were justice and humanity out of the question, would policy and prudence authorize this country to seize the possessions of France? What advantage could we derive from promoting the conquering and incroaching plans of other powers? Having driven France from the territories of her neighbours, for what purpose were we to persevere in a war, unless to invade her dominions? If we did make an inroad into her territories, could such a movement be to attain our professed objects, security and defence? By continuing the war we should manifest an intention of either dismembering her empire, or interfering with the government which her people chose to establish. These objects our government had uniformly disavowed, and the declared ends of hostilities had been compassed. The most favourable season for offering peace was in the midst of success; when the enemy were sufficiently humbled to feel the evils of war, without being driven, by the haughtiness of the conquerors, to desperate efforts, which might turn the tide of victory. Those, who calculated probable exertions of men fighting for conceived liberty and independence by the usual course of military events, fundamentally erred in expecting similar effects from totally

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disimilar causes. Inspired by such animating motives, men had, in all ages and countries, displayed valour, prowess, and policy, astonishing to the rest of mankind. Pressed by continued and invading war, which excited such motives, the ardent spirit and inventive genius of the French would, Mr. Fox predicted, no less exert themselves; WE SHOULD DRIVE THEM TO BECOME A MILITARY REPUBLIC. Let us therefore endeavour, while opportunity was favourable, to procure an honourable and secure peace. To this a common objection is, with whom shall we treat? The answer is obvious; with any men who possess the power of doing what we want: the French are desirous of peace, and the present rulers are as competent to conclude peace as to carry on war. Shall we be at peace with none whose form of government we shall not have previously approved? We have formerly made peace with tyrants; not because we approved their maxims and constitution of government, but because they had the power of making and observing conventions. Peace with any ruler or rulers implies approbation of their character no more than of their government. The French republicans have been guilty of cruelty and atrocious murders; so was Lewis XIV. No British statesman refused to treat with the bigotted banisher of his most valuable subjects, nor with the sanguinary devastator of unoffending provinces. The statesman treats not with the virtue^k but with the power of another party; and in expecting performance, looks for his best security, not in the integrity but the interest of the contractor. These were the arguments by which Mr. Fox inculcated the restoration of peace; and this was the strain of reasoning which he and other votaries of amity employed repeatedly at various stages of the contest.¹

Messrs.
Pitt and
Burke op-
pose Mr.
Fox on
different
grounds.

IN opposing the address, messrs. Burke and Pitt argued conformably to the different views which they had respectively adopted concerning the French revolution and the war. Mr. Pitt persevered in urging the impracticability of any treaty with the persons that at present exercised the government of France; and in supporting

^k Parliamentary Debates, 17th June, 1793.
¹ See also his letter to the electors of Westminster

his position, exhibited a very eloquent view of their individual and collective atrocities : therefore he would not treat with them *now*. Reprobating the French principles as manifested in their present operation, he still disavowed every design of forcible interference in the internal government of France : he sought only security. This security was to be effected in one of three modes : first, by obtaining an assurance that the principles should no longer predominate ; secondly, that those who were now engaged in them should be taught that they were impracticable, and convinced of their own want of power to carry them into execution ; or, thirdly, that the issue of the present war should be such as, by weakening their power of attack, should strengthen our power of resistance. Without these we might indeed have an armed truce, a temporary suspension of hostilities, but no permanent peace ; no solid security to guard us against the repetition of injury and the renewal of attack. The present situation of affairs not being such, in Mr. Pitt's estimation, as to admit these means of obtaining security, he and his votaries opposed the address for the discontinuance of the war. Mr. Burke clearly and expressly combatted the principle asserted by Mr. Fox, that England had no right to interfere with the internal government of France. If (he said) by the subversion of all law and religion, a nation adopts a malignant spirit to produce anarchy and mischief in other countries, it is the right of all nations to go to war with the authors of such attempts. In support of this doctrine he quoted the authority of Vattel, who lays down a position, "that if any nation adopt principles maleficent to all government and order, such a nation is to be opposed from principles of common safety." This was the spirit of France ; and what was to keep the effects of it from England ? War, and nothing else : therefore, war with the French republic, *on account of her system and principles*, Mr. Burke recommended ; and explicitly declared his opinion, that while the existing system continued, peace with France was totally inadmissible. The proposed address to the king was negatived by a majority equally great as that which had voted for the war ; and through-

The propositions are negatived by unprecedented majorities.

CHAP. out the nation perseverance in hostilities was as generally
1.1. popular.

1793.

Mr. Sheridan
on propos-
ing an in-
quiry into
the alleged
sedition:

MINISTERS, and many others who had been formerly inimical to their measures, having expressed their conviction that there existed in the country dispositions and desigas to subvert the constitution, and to follow the example of the French innovators, Mr. Sheridan proposed that an inquiry should be instituted into the alleged sedition. He declared his disbelief of the ministerial representations upon any evidence that had been adduced, but avowed himself open to proofs, if such should be established: he therefore proposed a committee of the whole house to investigate the assertions, that it might be ascertained whether there was really a plot against the country, or if it was merely a false and mischievous report to impose on the credulity of the nation; to attach obloquy to the opponents of administration, and to facilitate the continuance of the war. In answer to Mr. Sheridan's requisition it was argued, that the government had not asserted the existence of plots to be established by proof for judicial animadversion, but of a seditious spirit and operations, which required deliberative precaution and the most vigilant care to prevent them from maturing into plots and insurrections. From a combination of various and disconnected circumstances a man might receive a moral certainty of a general fact which ought to regulate his conduct, though he might have no proof of such a fact^a sufficient to establish it before a magistrate. The active circulation of seditious writings, the proceedings and declarations of the innovating societies;^b the public and avowed sentiments^c of great numbers in favour of the French system as a model for this country, concurred in manifesting the existence of a spirit which it became the legislature and government to repress; and Mr. Sheridan's motion was negatived by a very numerous majority.

his motion
rejected.

GREAT and powerful as the body was which now supported administration in both houses, the small band which in parliament abetted contrary measures was not

^a Mr. Windham's speech on Mr. Sheridan's motion, 4th March 1793. See Parliamentary Debates, in 1b, see 1b. ^b Speech of sir James Sanderson the lord mayor, See 1b.

discouraged from persevering in an opposition which appeared very unlikely to attain any of their objects in parliament; and out of parliament was not gratified by that popularity which has so often encouraged and elevated parliamentary minorities. Mr. Grey, agreeably to the intimation which he had given the preceding year in the house, and to the promise which he had made to the friends of the people, proceeded in his resolution to move a reform in parliament. Various petitions were presented to the house from inhabitants of towns, villages, and districts, both in England and Scotland, who joined for that purpose. Of these, some were moderate and respectful, but others wild and violent. One petition, of a very great length, was read from persons calling themselves *friends of the people*:^p this representation, repeating the usual arguments, endeavoured to illustrate them by facts and instances;^q and earnestly, though temperately, urged a change. Mr. Grey, having presented this petition, seconded its prayer by a proposition of parliamentary reform. Besides the usual arguments which, on a subject discussed so often in parliament, must necessarily be repetitions, and personal animadversions on the affirmed change of Mr. Pitt's conduct, Mr. Grey endeavoured to obviate objections to the seasonableness of the requisition. Forcibly urging the vast mass of influence which, though before known as a general fact, had never been so explicitly demonstrated by particular enumeration, he contended that the greater part of the influence in question was under the control of ministers; that thence they had been enabled, at different periods of history, to establish systems and execute measures which were totally inconsistent with the country's good. Whatever evils did or might threaten our country, there was no preventive so certain, no safeguard so

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Motion by
Mr. Grey
for parlia-
mentary
reform.

Argu-
ments for.

p Not the association of which Mr. Grey was at the head, but a society that appears to have sprung from the addresses of that body.

q A work was published about this time, presenting an abstract of counties and boroughs, especially the latter, asserted to be in the nomination of peers, commoners, and the treasury, and not of the ostensible electors. The alleged result was, that seventy-one peers nominate eighty-eight, influence seventy-five; that the treasury nominate two, influence five; that ninety-one commoners nominate eighty-two, influence fifty-seven; that in England and Wales the whole number of members returned by private patronage amounted to three hundred and nine. See *Report on the state of the representation, published by the society of friends of the people*.

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II.

1793.

Mr. Whit-
bread.

powerful, as a pure and uncorrupted house of commons, emanating fairly and freely from the people. The national debt, in its present accumulation, was owing to the corruption of parliament: had a reform in the representation of the people taken place at the conclusion of the peace of 1763, this country would, in all likelihood, have escaped the American war: if it had been accomplished last year, probably it would have saved us from our present distresses. If ever there was danger to be apprehended by this country from the propagation of French principles, the danger was now completely at an end. No set of Britons, without being bereft of their senses, could after recent events propose the French revolution as a model for British imitation. But were such principles ever to threaten danger, the surest way of preventing it from being serious was, by promoting the comfort and happiness of the people,^r to gratify their reasonable wishes, and to grant a parliamentary reform, which was so essentially necessary, and so ardently desired: the effectual preventive of violent and forcible alteration was timely reform. This last position was still more warmly urged by Mr. Whitbread. Metaphysical opinions (he said) have never, in any instance, produced a revolution: the engine with which Providence has thought fit to compass those mighty events has been of a different description: the feelings of the governed, rendered desperate by the grinding oppression of their governors. What brought about that great event the reformation? Not the theories or speculations of philosophers, but the impolitic avarice and injustice of the church of Rome. What produced the catastrophe of Charles the first? What produced the revolution in this country? The oppressions of the executive government; and to the same cause America owes her freedom. Lastly, what produced the revolution in France? The misery of the people; the pride, injustice, avarice, and cruelty of the court.^s The great characters who acted in these different scenes had but little power in producing their occasions. Luther, Cromwell, or Washington, the illustrious persons who appeared at the

^r Mr. Grey's speech on reform, 6th May, 1793. See Parliamentary Debates.
^s Mr. Whitbread's speech on reform. See Parliamentary Debates.

era of the English revolution, or the wild visionaries of France could never have persuaded the people to rise, if they had been unassisted by their own miseries and the usurpations of power. When the feelings of men are roused by injury, then they attempt innovation; then the doctrines of enthusiasts find ready access to their minds. This general reasoning was not controverted by the opposers of parliamentary change in the present circumstances. No one pretended to assert that seasonable reform was not better than perseverance in profligate corruption and tyrannical oppression; but the existence of these mischiefs was denied: no evil had been demonstrated that called for such a corrective. The persons associated to petition for a reform in parliament (their opponents said,) after a year's consideration, and, as it appears, repeated meetings, do not produce any specific plan whatever; it is therefore reasonable to infer, that they have not been able to ascertain the evil, much less to produce a remedy. The supporters of reform have asserted that the national debt originated in the corruption of parliament; and that a reform would have prevented the many burdensome wars in which this country has been engaged since the revolution. Instead of theory examine fact: all these wars have been agreeable to the people; the proposers and supporters of them spoke in unison with the sentiments of the people. Was not a great majority of the nation favourable to the wars of William and Anne, for humbling the pride and reducing the power of Lewis XIV.? Was not the Spanish war of 1739 popular? undertaken at the express requisition of the people, and even contrary to the known opinion of the government? Consider the war of 1756: was that unpopular? Never was any country engaged in a war more universally popular. The American war was equally approved by public opinion until within a year and a half of its conclusion: nothing could be more marked than the approbation which the public gave of that measure. No new system of representation could have spoken the voice of the people more plainly and strongly than the house of commons expressed it in approving these wars. That there might be improper influence in elections could not be denied; such influence, however,

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Arguments
against.

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The proposition is reprobated as peculiarly unreasonable at such a period,

and is rejected.

State of commercial credit, and causes of its being affected.

arose not from the political constitution, but from the imperfections, prejudices, and passions of human nature. If you are to reform, begin with moral reform :^t but if political reform be wanted, this certainly is not the time to agitate subjects so likely to inflame the passions of the people, and to excite a public ferment. Though there may be some defects, abide by the constitution rather than hazard a change with all the dreadful train of consequences with which we have seen it attended in a neighbouring kingdom. These arguments made a deep impression, and the proposition of Mr. Grey was rejected by a very great majority, as totally inadmissible in the present state of affairs, opinions, and sentiments.

ONE of the most important objects of parliamentary consideration during the present session was the state of mercantile credit. A spirit of commercial speculation and enterprise had been for some years increasing in every part of the kingdom, and was now risen to such an height, as to threaten public credit with very serious danger. The circulating specie being by no means sufficient to answer the very greatly augmented demands of trade, the quantity of paper currency which was brought into circulation as a supplying medium, was so large and disproportionate, that a scarcity of cash was produced which threatened a general stagnation in the commercial world. In consequence of the distress and alarm which this stagnation had caused, Mr. Pitt proposed that a select committee should be appointed to inquire into facts, and explore their causes ; and the subject being investigated, it was found that the embarrassments arose from the precipitation, and not the inability of British merchants. The multiplication of paper currency, and scarcity of coin, induced banks and bankers to suspend the usual discounts in expectation of which, merchants had formed engagements that were far from exceeding their property, but in the present state of pecuniary negotiation, surpassed their convertible effects. To extricate commercial men from these difficulties, Mr. Pitt proposed that government should advance money on the security of mercantile commodities, by issuing exche-

^t The reasoning in the text is in substance taken from the speech of Mr. Jenkinson. See Parliamentary Debates, May 6th, 1793.

quer bills, to be granted to merchants, on the requisite security, for a limited time, and bearing legal interest. Opposition expressed their apprehensions that the proposed mode would be ineffectual, that the failures arose from the present ruinous war, and that every remedy but peace would be futile. The projected plan, besides, would open a path to the most dangerous patronage, since government could afford or withhold the accommodation according to the political conduct of the applicant. These objections being overruled, the bill was passed into a law : the temporary embarrassment was removed ; and manufactures and trade again became flourishing.

ANOTHER subject, of the highest commercial magnitude, at the same time occupied legislature. The charter of the East India company being on the eve of expiration, a petition for its renewal was presented to parliament ; and on the 23d of April the subject was taken into consideration. The very general reception of Smith's commercial philosophy, especially his doctrine of free trade, and the known admiration in which Mr. Pitt, and many of his coadjutors and votaries held the popular system of political economy, had given rise to expectations and apprehensions that the exclusive privileges of the East India merchants would last no longer than the period which was pledged by the public faith. Many supposed that the commercial monopoly would be forever destroyed, and that the trade to India would be opened to the whole energy of British enterprise. To scrutinize this subject was the peculiar department of Mr. Dundas ; and though thoroughly acquainted with the views of theoretical economists that able minister regarded the question as a practical statesman. Without undertaking to controvert the doctrines of speculative writers concerning the productive efficacy of a free trade, or even denying the probability of its profitable effects, if extended to our intercourse with India, he laid down a sound and prudent proposition, that legislators ought not rashly to relinquish a positive good in possession for a probable good in anticipation. The advantages which experience had proved to accrue from the present system were immense, varied, and momentous. The shipping employed by the

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1793.

Mr. Pitt proposes an advance of public money on the security of mercantile commodities.

The proposition is adopted, and revives mercantile credit.

East India company's charter on the eve of expiration.

Mr. Dundas presents a masterly a view of the prosperous state of India under the present system.

CHAP.
II.

1793.

Sir John
Sinclair.

Inquiries
of in Scot-
land,

and Eng-
land.

Result,
that agri-
culture is
not under-
stood and
practised
in propor-
tion to the
capability
of the
country—

tures and commerce. This is an omission the consequences of which have been often fatally experienced from recurring scarcity in a country, by the fertility of its soil and the talents of its people, so adapted for securing plenty. An evil so frequent was naturally the subject of reiterated complaint; but no effectual measures were employed to prevent it from often occurring again. Among the many ardent inquirers into political economy, one of the most active and indefatigable whom an age supremely addicted to such studies has produced, is sir John Sinclair. This gentleman, of a vigorous and acute understanding, enriched with knowledge and methodised by erudition, had bestowed great industry of research on various branches of political philosophy. He had traced, investigated, and presented to the public, the history of revenue. In the progress of his pursuits, agriculture presented itself to him as an object most deserving of promotion. He saw that very much remained to be done; but before he could set about propositions of improvement, he thought it wisest and most expedient to ascertain the facts; and therefore sought information where useful information was most likely to be found. In Scotland, his native country, he applied himself to the clergy, the best informed of any class of men of fixed rural residence, and addressed certain queries to the members of that numerous and respectable body. These queries, embracing the physical, moral, religious, and political situation of the respective parishes, in the result of the answers produced an immense body of statistical knowledge; especially on pastoral and agricultural subjects. He afterwards, less systematically and extensively executed, through different means, a similar plan in England. He advanced, however, so far as to ascertain a general fact, of the very highest importance; that though in some particular districts improved methods of cultivating the soil are practised, yet, in the greater part of these kingdoms, the principles of agriculture are not yet sufficiently understood;

Y From the towns also the reports were extremely valuable; but these were not all executed by clergymen. The most important—the account of the city of Edinburgh, came from the pen of Mr. Creech; and with the state of the metropolis, very happily united the progress and variation of national manners.

nor are the implements of husbandry, or the stock of the farmer, brought to that perfection of which they are capable. To promote so desirable a purpose, sir John Sinclair projected the establishment of a board of agriculture, to be composed of gentlemen perfectly acquainted with the subject, and considerably interested in the success of the scheme, and who should act without any reward or emolument. An address was proposed to the king, praying him to take into his royal consideration the advantages that might accrue from such an institution. His majesty directing the establishment of the board; the commons voted the necessary sums for defraying the expenses, and the board of agriculture was accordingly established.^a

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1793.
proposes
the estab-
lishment
of a board
of agricul-
ture.

The pro-
posal is
adopted.

CERTAIN districts of Scotland, on the coast, were molested with heavier duties upon coals than other parts of the country. This evil had been often and strongly stated in the statistical reports; and the duty actually amounted to a prohibition. In the north of Scotland, from the high price of coals, the people were obliged to trust almost entirely to their peat mosses for a supply of fuel. In preparing this article a large portion of the labour of that part of the country was expended, which might be beneficially employed in fisheries and manufactures, and by this means a great part was lost to the revenue, which would have arisen from the industry of the inhabitants. For these reasons Mr. Dundas proposed the repeal of the duties in question: and that the revenue might not suffer, he moved certain imposts upon distilled spirits, which, enhancing the price of the article, would benefit health and preserve morals. A petition was presented by the cities of London and Westminster, praying for a repeal of a duty upon coals: in the reign of queen Anne a tax of three shillings per chaldron had been imposed upon imported coals, and the amount was to be applied to the building of fifty-two churches.^a The duty afterwards had been employed in the maintenance of the clergymen of those churches; and lastly, was made a part of the consolidated fund; and ministers alleging it was no longer a

^a See Otridge's Annual Register, 1793, chap. iv.

^a This was a quite different impost from that of Charles II. of five shillings per chaldron, now enjoyed by the duke of Richmond.

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LI.

1793.
Law for
the relief
of Scottish
catholics.

local tax, prevailed on the house to reject the petition. Among the classes of subjects who applied for relief this season were the catholics of Scotland: the lord advocate stated on their behalf, that his majesty's catholic subjects in Scotland were at present incapacitated by law either from holding or transmitting landed property, and were liable to other very severe restrictions, which could not now be justified by any necessity or expediency. He therefore proposed a bill to relieve persons professing the catholic religion from certain penalties and disabilities imposed on them by acts of parliament in Scotland, and particularly by an act of the 8th of king William: the bill being introduced, was, without opposition, passed into a law.^b

Motion of
lord Raw-
don for the
relief of
debtors
and satis-
faction of
creditors.

LORD RAWDON this year presented a bill for the relief of insolvent debtors, and for amending and regulating the practice with regard to imprisonment for debt. The bill was a compound of that humanity and discrimination which has been already noticed in this benevolent and able character. His lordship deemed the law of imprisonment for debt to be founded in principles at once rigorous and absurd: it was rigorous, because it exacted from the victims of its operation, while doomed to inaction, that which, in the free exercise of their faculties, they were not able to perform; and was absurd, because ineffectual to its avowed purpose; for it was calculated to defeat, not to attain, its object. If the debtor be guilty of a fraud, said his lordship, punish him as a fraudulent agent; if not guilty of a fraud, do not punish insolvency as a crime, which should rather be commiserated as a misfortune: to punish insolvency as criminal, and to doom fraud to the same punishment as mere insolvency, is to confound all moral distinctions. As the law now stands between debtor and creditor, in the very commencement of an action the fundamental principle of justice is violated. What is the great object of the institution of government, but to prevent individuals from being even the judges, far more the avengers, of their own wrong? Yet, by the existing laws of the land, the creditor is enabled to deprive

^b Acts of Parliament, 35 of Geo. III.

the debtor of his liberty upon a simple swearing to the debt. The proposed bill, however, for the present, did not intend a general change of the law which he reprobated as so severe and unjust: what he now desired, was a modification of arrests and of bail, so as to prevent oppression and distress for inconsiderable sums. The bill was opposed by lord Thurlow and by others, as striking at the whole system of the law of England; and the lord chancellor proposed that it should be referred to the judges to examine the state of the debtor and creditor laws, to consider the subject, and prepare a bill to be introduced early the next session: Lord Rawdon agreeing, it was, for the present, withdrawn.

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THESE were the principal subjects that came before parliament this session, except the supplies. The army and navy were increased to a war establishment, and a considerable body of Hanoverian troops was employed in the service of Britain. Besides the ordinary national funds, a loan of four millions five hundred thousand pounds was required. The high estimation in which the minister stood with the moneyed capitalists induced the public to expect that the loan would have been negotiated on very favourable terms: but the stagnation of mercantile credit was felt by the minister as well as others who had occasion to borrow money. There was actually a great scarcity of cash, and the public was obliged to pay a premium of eight per cent. For defraying the interest of the loan the provisions were, ten per cent. on assessed taxes; an additional duty upon British spirits, on bills, receipts, and on game licenses. On the 21st of June the session was closed by a speech in which his majesty expressed the highest satisfaction with the firmness, wisdom, and public spirit which had distinguished the houses during so very important a session, and testified his approbation of the successive measures which they had adopted for the internal repose and tranquillity of the kingdom; for the protection and extension of our commercial interests both at home and in our foreign dependencies, and for their liberal contributions towards those exertions by which only we could attain the great objects of our pursuit, the restoration of peace on terms consistent with our

Increase
of the
army and
navy
National
supplies.
Loan and
taxes.

Session
closes.

CHAP.

1798.

Campaign
of 1793.

permanent security, and the general tranquillity of Europe. The signal successes with which the war had begun, and the measures that were concerted with other powers, afforded the most favourable prospect of a happy termination to the important contest in which we were engaged.^c

HAVING brought the parliamentary history of this session to a close, the narrative now proceeds to military transactions, some part of which passed at the same period; including certain events to which allusion has already been necessarily made.

FROM the disposition of their forces the French were enabled first to commence hostilities; and as soon as war was declared against Great Britain and the states general, Dumourier proposed to invade the United Provinces. There the democratic party, which, as we have seen, the aristocratical faction had cherished and abetted to cooperate in their enmity to the house of Orange, still subsisted. Though cautious in their proceedings since the reestablishment of the stadtholder, they were increasing in number and force from the Belgian commotions, and still more from the French revolution; especially after the republicans had become masters of the Netherlands. With the disaffected Dutch, Dumourier maintained a close correspondence, carried on chiefly by emigrant Hollanders assembled at Antwerp: these, formed into a kind of Batavian committee, were the channels of communication between the Gallic leaders and the malcontents residing within the united provinces. The malcontents recommended eruption into Zealand, but the general himself thought it more adviseable to advance with a body of troops posted at Mordyck, and masking Breda and Gertruydenburg on the right, and Bergen-op-zoom, Steenberg, Klundert and Williamstadt, on the left, to effect a passage over an arm of the sea to Dort, and thus penetrate into the very heart of Holland.^d The design was adventurous, but not unlikely to succeed, if executed with such rapidity as to anticipate the arrival of assistance from England. The army which Dumourier commanded on this occasion consisted of twenty-one battalions, which, including cavalry

^c State Papers, June 21st, 1793.^d Memoirs of Dumourier.

and light troops, amounted to about thirteen thousand men. He was accompanied by the skilful engineer D'Arcon, who had invented the floating batteries at the siege of Gibraltar, and a considerable number of Dutch emigrants. A proclamation was published, inveighing against the English government and the conduct of the stadtholder, and calling upon the Dutch to assist their democratic brethren in destroying the power of their aristocratic tyrants.^c On the 17th of February the French army entered the territories of the states general. Breda being invested surrendered by a capitulation, in which it was stipulated, that the garrison should retain their arms, and continue to fight for their country during the war. On the 26th, Klundart opened its gates to the French army ; and on the 4th of March, Gertruydenburg having stood a bombardment of three days, surrendered. The same terms were granted to these two fortresses as to Breda. The strength of the captured towns was so great, that military critics, convinced they might have resisted much more effectually, did not hesitate to conclude that their easy submission arose from treachery. Dumourier now proceeded towards Williamstadt. While he was himself making such progress on the left, general Miranda, advancing on the right, invested Maestricht with an army of twenty thousand men. Having completed his works, he summoned the garrison to surrender ; but the prince of Hesse, commander of the fortress, refused to capitulate, and avowed his determination to defend such an important post to the last extremity. The French general bombarded as well as cannonaded the town ; while, on the other hand, the besieged made two sallies, though without material success. General Miranda continued his investment of Maestricht ; and a covering army of French was encamped at Herve under the command of general Valence. Meanwhile general Clairfait, with the Austrian army, having crossed the Roer, attacked the French posts on the 1st of March, and compelled the army to retreat as far as Alderhaven, with the loss of two thousand men, twelve pieces of cannon, thirteen ammunition wagons,

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II.

1793.

The French invade Holland. Breda, Klundart, and Gertruydenburg surrender.

Dumourier besieges Williamstadt and Maestricht.

^c State Papers, February, 1793.

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and the military chest : the following day the archduke attacked several French batteries, and took nine pieces of cannon. On the 3d of March the prince of Saxe Cobourg obtained a signal victory over the French,^f and drove them from Aix-la-Chapelle even to the vicinity of Liege, with the loss of four thousand killed, one thousand six hundred prisoners, and twenty pieces of cannon. In consequence of this defeat of the covering army general Miranda raised the siege of Maestricht. Dumourier, following the rear of his successes in the west, laid siege to Williamstadt, and to Bergen-op-zoom;^g but the course of his victory was arrested; for now he had a new enemy to encounter in the British army.

The British forces arrive in Holland.

The French raise the siege of William-

They are attacked by the Austrians at Neer Winden, and defeated.

THE first object of the British military plans for this campaign was the defence of Holland, and a body of troops was in February sent, consisting of about six thousand British, commanded by the duke of York. A brigade of British guards was thrown into Williamstadt, who animating the Dutch to vigorous defence, and leading their efforts, made so gallant a resistance, that Dumourier saw that perseverance would be unavailing; he therefore raised the siege, ordered his troops to retire from Bergen-op-zoom, evacuated the towns and forts which had surrendered, and returned to take the command in the eastern Netherlands, where the declining fortunes of the French required the presence of an able general. The Austrians had continued advancing to Brabant; and several skirmishes of posts had taken place, in which the Germans were generally superior. On the morning of the 18th of March, an engagement commenced at Neer Winden, on the confines of Brabant and Liege. General Dumourier attacked the centre of the imperial army with great vigour, but suffered a repulse; and he yielded to the same superior efforts from the imperial right wing. In the afternoon, however, the French right wing gained some advantage; but the corps de reserve, commanded by general Clairfait, decided the day. The army of Dumourier retreated for some time in good order, but were at length entirely routed by the Austrian cavalry. The slaughter was great;

^f New Annual Register, 1793, p. 159.

^g See Dumourier's Memoirs.

the French lost four thousand men, and soon after six thousand deserted to the enemy. The French generals, by mutual crimination, endeavoured respectively to remove from themselves the blame of disaster. Dumourier imputed the defeat to general Miranda, who, he asserted, both fought feebly, and fled unnecessarily. In his memoirs, indeed, he admits that general La Marche committed the first error, by an injudicious movement which threw his troops into confusion; but Miranda is the subject of his principal censure.^h Miranda, on the other hand, imputes the discomfiture to treachery on the part of Dumourier.ⁱ But wherever the blame lay, if there was any, the battle of Neer Winden decided the fate of the Belgian Netherlands. The Austrians continued to pursue the republicans; on the 21st, Dumourier judged it proper to take post nearer Louvain, and on the following day he was attacked by the enemy. The action was bloody, and lasted the whole day; but the imperialists were compelled to retreat with great loss: the Austrians, however, rapidly advancing in other quarters, the French general judged it expedient to evacuate all his conquests and reenter France. Dumourier thoroughly knew the disposition of the convention, and foreseeing the fate which the suspicious republicans prepared for a vanquished general, he resolved to make his peace with the allies, to march with his troops against Paris, there to effect a counter revolution, and reestablish monarchy. On this subject he conversed with colonel Mack, an Austrian officer of great eminence; and it was agreed that the imperial troops should act merely as auxiliaries for the attainment of this object; and should remain on the frontiers, unless he wanted their assistance. If Dumourier should find it impracticable to effect a counter revolution without the aid of the Austrians, then he should indicate the number and kind of troops of which he should stand in need to execute his design. The Austrian forces to be furnished in that event, should be entirely under the direction of Dumourier. The executive government suspecting the dispositions of Dumourier, sent deputies to investigate his conduct. Confident of the

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French
generals
accuse
each other.

Dumou-
rier evac-
uates the
Nether-
lands.

He pri-
vately pro-
poses to
make
peace with
the allies,
and restore
monarchy.

^h See Dumourier's Memoirs.

ⁱ In a letter to Petion, dated 21st March, 1793.

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He is suspected by the French government, and summoned to return to Paris, to answer for his conduct.

He sounds the disposition of the army; but finding them unfavourable, deserts to the Austrians.

assistance of his army, he did not disguise from them his project to annihilate the national convention, and fix a king upon the throne. Informed of his design the convention sent commissioners to supersede his command, and summoned him to appear at Paris to answer for his conduct. Dumourier ordered these delegates to be seized, and conveyed to general Clairfait's headquarters, to be kept as hostages for the safety of the royal family. But the army soon showed the vanity of Dumourier's expectations; they not only refused to follow him to Paris, but gave him reason to doubt his personal security, and he was compelled to seek safety by flight. Having reached the imperial territories, he had an interview with colonel Mack, and with the prince of Saxe Cobourg. Two proclamations were digested, one by Dumourier himself, the other by the prince of Saxe Cobourg. The manifesto of general Dumourier contained a recapitulation of his services to the French republic; a statement of the cruel neglect which his army had experienced in the preceding winter, and of the outrages which were practised by the jacobins towards the generals of the republic, and particularly himself. It states the reasons why he arrested the commissioners; exhibits a vivid picture of the evils which might be apprehended from the continuance of the anarchical system in France; and expresses his confident expectations, that as soon as the imperialists entered the territory of France, not as vanquishers, and as wishing to dictate laws, but as generous allies, come to assist in reestablishing the constitution of 1790, great numbers of the French troops would join in promoting so necessary a purpose. He protested upon oath, that his sole design was to reestablish constitutional royalty; and that he and his companions would not lay down their arms until they had succeeded in their enterprise. These protestations, interspersed with a considerable portion of gasconading promises which he could not perform, and threats which he could not execute,^k constituted the declaration. A mani-

^k In the last paragraph, in which he introduces his oath under the head "*I swear* (he says) that we will not lay down our arms until we shall have succeeded in our enterprise; and our sole design is to reestablish the constitu-

testo^t was also published by the prince of Saxe Cobourg, announcing that the allied powers were no longer to be considered as principals, but merely as auxiliaries in the war; that they had no other object but to cooperate with general Dumoutier, in giving to France her constitutional king, and the constitution she formed for herself. He pledged himself that he and his army would not enter the French territory to make conquests, but solely for the end now specified. He declared farther, that any strong places which should be put into his hands, should be considered as sacred deposits, to be delivered up as soon as the constitutional government should be established in France, or as soon as general Dumourier should demand them to be ceded. It was at this period that Mr. Fox^m and many others thought that the combined powers might have proposed such terms of peace to France, as would have been accepted with equal readiness and gratitude. The allies, it was alleged by the votaries of peace, ought to have declared themselves to the national convention to the following purport. Arrange your internal government according to your own inclinations: the present confederacy is formed for purposes of defence not of aggression; we shall not therefore interfere in the constitution of France. We only desire you to reestablish the ancient boundaries of the Netherlands, to restore your other conquests; to liberate the queen and the royal family; and to allow the emigrants a moiety of their property: we will then withdraw our forces, and be your friends. Had such propositions been made, these politicians affirmed that a stop might have been immediately

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tion, and constitutional royalty: that no resentment, no thirst after vengeance, no ambitious motive, sways our purposes; that no foreign power shall influence our opinions; that wherever anarchy shall cease at the appearance of our arms, and those of the combined armies, we will conduct ourselves as friends and brothers; that wherever we meet with resistance, we shall know to select the culpable and spare the peaceable inhabitants, the victims of the infamous wiles of the jacobins of Paris, from whom have arisen the horrors and calamities of the war; that we shall in no way dread the poignards of Marat and the jacobins;—that we will destroy the manufacture of those poignards, as well as that of the scandalous writings by which an attempt is made to pervert the noble and generous character of the French nation;—and finally, in the name of my companions in arms, I repeat the oath, that we will live and die free. The general in chief of the French army. Dumourier. See State Papers, 1793.

¹ See State Papers, April 5th, 1793.

m It was in consequence of the present posture of affairs, that he made a motion for peace, which has been already mentioned in the parliamentary history.

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II.

1793.

Hypothetical reasonings on the practicality and expediency of peace at this period of victory to the confederates.

put to the effusion of blood ; and that France would at this time have been under a regular and established government, and Europe would have been at peace. It is difficult to say with any degree of probability, what would have been the result in a very problematical question, of an experiment that never was tried. The probable success of such an attempt proceeded upon an assumption that either the French were not originally the aggressors ; or, if the beginners of the war, were from recent discomfiture tired of its continuance. Perhaps if the offer had been made, in their present circumstances they might have received it with delight ; and for a time have continued pacific ; but afterwards might have resumed invasion, when the confederation was broken. But it belongs not to history to state possible, or even probable consequences, which might flow from measures that were not adopted. If as some able statesmen argued, the hour of victory was the hour of offering peace, the confederates against France were of a totally different opinion. They conceived France to have been the aggressor ; to have manifested views of ambitious aggrandizement ; that it was the policy of her neighbours to prevent her encroachments, and in her present condition to reduce her strength so as effectually to prevent the future accomplishment of her projects ; that therefore they ought now to press upon her in her weakened state. On this view they regulated their policy, and formed the plan of the rest of the campaign. A congress was held at Antwerp, wherein representatives attended from the several powers that formed the combination, which had now been joined by Spain and Naples. At this congress were present the prince of Saxe Cobourg, counts Metternich, Starenberg, and Mercy d'Argenteau, with the Prussian, Spanish, and Neapolitan envoys. It was determined that the fortresses on the frontiers of France should be invested by the armies of the confederates, that the enemy's coasts should be beset on every side by the fleets of the maritime powers, and that every encouragement and practicable assistance should be afforded to the royalists within France.^a A second proclamation was now published by

^a New Annual Register, 1793.

the prince of Saxe Cobourg, annulling the first, and declaring a design of keeping whatever places he should capture, for the indemnification of his sovereign. Dumourier, when he was informed of this change in the imperial system of military operations, declared to the prince de Cobourg, that he could not with honour serve against France. Receiving a passport, he therefore retired into Germany.*

By the plan of operations concerted for attacking the frontiers of France, the British, Dutch, Austrian, and Prussian troops were to press on the Netherlands; an army of Prussians and other Germans from the Rhine. Joined to the confederate armies were great bodies of emigrants, commanded by the princes of the blood, and other refugees of high rank and distinction. The chief part of the exiles was attached to the army of the Netherlands; and on all sides dispositions were made for invading the French dominions.

* He first came over into Britain, but was desired by ministers to quit the kingdom: and in his visit nothing passed of any historical importance. See *Annual Register*, 1793.

CHAP. LII.

Overtures of the French government for peace with Britain.—Le Brun the minister proposes to send an ambassador to England.—Letters containing his propositions are delivered to lord Grenville—but receive no answer.—Alarming state of France—at war with all her neighbours.—Intestine war in La Vendee.—The victorious allies invade the French dominions.—Battle at St. Amand between the allies and the French.—The duke of York and the British troops take a share in the action.—British soldiers supremely excellent in close fight—in spite of French numbers and artillery by the bayonet decide the fate of the day.—Battle of Famars and the defeat of the French.—Blockade and surrender of Conde.—Siege of Valenciennes—strength of the fortress—operations—taken after a siege of six weeks.—Successes on the Rhine.—Mentz taken by the Prussian army.—France torn by dissensions.—Mountain excite a clamour against the Brissotines.—Establishment of the revolutionary tribunal.—Brissotines, with distinguished speculative ability, deficient in practical talents.—Mountain superior in decision and daring atrocity.—Brissot, Roland, and their supporters, seized and committed to prison.—Robespierre and his associates become rulers of France.—System of terror reigns.—Constitution of 1793.—Singular absurdity and anarchy.—Committees of public and general safety.—Combination in the south for overthrowing the frightful tyranny.—Toulon puts itself under the protection of lord Hood and the British fleet.—Comprehensive and efficacious malignity of the governing junto.—Robespierre and his band abolish christianity—publicly and nationally abjure the Supreme Being—proscribe genius, destroy commerce, confiscate remaining property—debase every kind of excellence—attempt to level all civil, political, and moral distinctions.—The pressure of the war facilitates their

atrocities.—Forced loans—requisitions.—Bold scheme of the war minister to raise the nation in mass.—Efficacy of this system—confounds all calculations of the allied powers—overcomes the insurgents of La Vendee—forces the British to seek safety by evacuating Toulon.—Netherlands.—Activity and progress of the duke of York and the British troops.—Victory at Lincennes—invests Dunkirk with reasonable hopes of success.

ABOUT the time that Dumourier engaged in a negotiation with Cobourg for the reestablishment of monarchy, the existing government of France made an attempt to procure the restoration of peace. The proposals were conveyed through a very unusual channel: Le Brun, the French minister, employed Mr. James Matthews, an Englishman of whom he had no knowledge but what Matthews gave himself, to carry to London two letters¹ addressed to lord Grenville, and a third to Mr. John Salter, attorney, then a vestry clerk to the parish, since a notary public in Penny's Fields, Poplar, recommended by Matthews, requesting him to deliver the two letters to the British secretary. The purport of the first was, that the French republic desired to terminate all differences with Great Britain, and that he demanded a passport for a person to repair from France to Britain for that purpose. The second mentioned Mr. Marat as the person who was to be deputed, and claimed a safe conduct for him and his necessary attendants. Mr. Salter accepted the commission, as he had probably agreed with Matthews; and on the 26th of April 1793, delivered the two letters to lord Grenville, at his office, Whitehall. The letters procured no attention, and produced no effect: they never, like other overtures for negotiation, were the subjects of parliamentary discussion; and the literary notice which they excited was inconsiderable. The partisans of war regarded the uncommonness of the agency as a sufficient reason for overlooking the propositions.²

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1793.
Overtures
for peace
by Le
Brun, the
French
minister.

He proposes to send an ambassador to Britain.

Letters from him are delivered to lord Grenville, but receive no answer.

¹ Dated at Paris, April 2d, 1793, and delivered to lord Grenville 26th April 1793. See State Papers.

² See Otridge's Annual Register for 1793; a volume which, having evidently taken a side, I prize less as an authority than any of the other volumes of the same work, which loyally and patriotically supporting our constitution, record and estimate measures with the dignified impartiality of authentic history.

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1793.

Circum-
stances and
history of
these prof-
fessors of con-
ciliation.

The votaries of peace did not view the advances in light, but from their general and cursory account, apt to have thought the transaction of little importance,^a are totally unacquainted with the causes and circumstances of a mode of conveyance so different from established etiquettes of diplomatic communication. In the real history of this mission the kind information of David Williams has enabled me to lay before the reader

THE literary celebrity of Mr. Williams, and the which the French reformers had made of his "Let "on political liberty," induced the Girondists to invite him to France, that he might assist them in the formation of a constitution.^t Brissot, whom he describes as honest but a weak man, he had known in England, corresponded with him, and warned him of the danger which he was incurring by his violence. Repairing to Paris, he became intimate with Condorcet, Roland, and other political leaders of the times. He continued to admonish them of the evils which they would encounter unless they could moderate the licentiousness of the populace, and suppress the faction of the jacobins. He rebuked the wildness and extravagance of the Girondists themselves, and strongly represented to Brissot the impracticability and madness of rousing and uniting the nation in war. He powerfully inculcated the necessity of peace and moderation, to the welfare of the people, and the security of any constitution which might be formed for that purpose: he particularly recommended the maintenance of peace with England, and strongly reprobated the prosecution and death of the king, as giving the populace a taste of blood. Eager as the Brissotines were for war, yet they were conscious that France was not prepared for hostilities with England: patriotic policy sometimes overcame revolutionary fury, and then they would listen to the pacific counsels of Mr. Williams. When discussions between Mr. Chauvelin and lord Grenville were evidently tending to hostility, they asked Mr. Williams to undertake a mission to the British court, in order to effect an accommodation. Regarding such an office

^a See Belsham's History, vol. v. p. 47.

^t See Madame Roland's Appeal, and Public Characters for 1793, p. 47.

not altogether suitable to a British subject, especially in the fluctuation of sentiment which the French government exhibited on the questions of peace and war, he declined the mission. Still, however, he conceived that peace might be preserved: the same opinion was expressed to him by members of the Gironde; and it was with great surprise, on the 1st of February, that he heard the convention declare war by *acclamation* against Britain and Holland. Mr. Williams now resolved to return to his country: still Le Brun and other members of the French government professed to him their wishes for the restoration of peace; and since he would not himself undertake a mission, that minister asked him to bear a letter to lord Grenville, which requested the British government to open the ports of Dover and Calais; in the postscript declared the French government to desire the reestablishment of peace, proposed to send a minister, and stated that Mr. Williams was empowered to explain their principle and project of conciliation, so as to be satisfactory to the British government. Mr. Williams returned to Britain, repaired to the secretary of state's office, delivered his letter,^a and mentioned his readiness to wait on lord Grenville whenever his lordship should appoint: but he was never sent for by the secretary, and there his commission ended. Mr. Williams himself appears to me to think that the French were already convinced of their precipitation in declaring war, and would have willingly agreed to the terms which lord Grenville had required from Chauvelin, if they found the British government equally disposed to return to amity; but as no opportunity was afforded him of an audience from lord Grenville, neither his statements nor deductions could be of any avail to the purpose of the commission with which he was charged.

CORRESPONDENCE between Britain and France being now precluded, Le Brun heard nothing from Mr. Williams. While Mr. Williams had been at Paris, there went thither a Mr. James Matthews, who professed great regard and veneration for Mr. Williams, was frequently in his com-

^a See State Papers.

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pany, and had thereby opportunities of knowing the names and persons of some members of the French government, but was not introduced to any of these rulers. The inauspicious commencement of the campaign between France and the allies disappointed the republicans; and the desertion of Dumourier added treachery as a fresh ground of alarm to the apprehensions that were entertained from the British and Austrians. Perhaps these considerations rendered the French government more anxious for peace, or perhaps they might profess anxiety without being sincere: whatever was the motive, they certainly did repeat the attempt; and this Mr. Matthews was the person, on the mere pretence of being Mr. Williams's confidant, that was appointed to carry the second overtures to England. Why Mr. Le Brun chose Mr. Salter to be the deliverer of the despatches sent by Mr. Matthews I have not learned, or why Mr. Matthews did not deliver them himself, he not being in a state of mind to answer such questions. Indeed, the whole transaction; Mr. Matthews's application to Le Brun as the confidant of Mr. Williams; the appointment of Mr. Salter, then vestry clerk of the parish of Poplar, to convey the letters to Grenville; and the assurances of Matthews, who brought the letters, that he should instantly make peace, and provide for all his friends (in which, however, Mr. Williams was not mentioned,) can be accounted for only from an incipient derangement of mind, the symptoms of which soon appeared, and for which he has been ever since confined. Mr. Matthews was chosen to be the bearer, not as an obscure and unconnected individual, but from being conceived by the French government to have the confidence of Mr. Williams. Mr. Williams they had first wished, in their extravagant manner, to be, in effect, an ambassador; and finding he would not accept that general mission, they prevailed on him to be the bearer of specific proposals, which they professed to think conducive to peace. Thence came Mr. Matthews to be employed in the SECOND application which the French government, within the first three months of the war, made for the reestablishment of peace. That the republicans were sincere in these proffers it would be very rash

to affirm. Against their sincerity there were the series of Brissotine menaces of universal warfare; the tendency and character of the revolutionary enthusiasm: for their sincerity there were the actual disappointments which they were experiencing, and the farther disasters which they *then* appeared likely to suffer. Perhaps they might be sincere in desiring peace with Britain, in order to facilitate their schemes of ambition against other countries; but those schemes of ambition had been formed in the exultation of unexpected success, and might not be cherished at the season of discomfiture and retreat. From the correspondence between Grenville and Chauvelin, they well knew that no proposal would be admitted by Britain which did not renounce the navigation of the Scheldt, forbear interference with the internal affairs of other countries, and forego their projects of aggrandizement: if they intended to offer less, their overtures, therefore, would have been futile; but it cannot^x be ascertained whether their offers would or would not have been satisfactory, according to our requisition of satisfaction, since they were not *heard*. The intervention of a vestry clerk has been stated as ridiculous; but Le Brun did not propose Mr. Salter as a negotiator, he employed him as a courier for carrying an offer of sending as ambassador Mr. Marat, who had a few months before conferred and negotiated with Mr. Pitt.

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THE situation of France was at this time extremely alarming; she was at war with her three most powerful neighbours, Prussia, Austria, and Britain. A body of her bravest sons, stimulated by the strongest resentment, was joined to her formidable enemies. The states of Holland, and principalities of Germany, though not very important in their separate force, yet added to the impulse which was already so great. Sardinia, Naples, and Spain, were embarked in the same cause. From the Texel to the straits of Gibraltar, from Gibraltar to Shetland, there was a circle of enemies encompassing France.^y

Alarming
state of
France;
at war with
all her
neigh-
bours.

^x On this part of my inquiries Mr. W. declined any particular explanation. He is writing on the subject himself.

^y The people, from having such a multiplicity of enemies, conceived themselves at war with the whole world: the following incident that occurred to a

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Within her territories there were numerous bodies eagerly desirous of cooperating with her foes from without: a formidable rebellion was broken out in La Vendee, and the French government, divided into two violent factions, appeared on the eve of destruction by an intestine war. These concurring circumstances seemed to justify the hopes of the confederacy, that France, surrounded by so many enemies, and rent by such convulsions, would be unable to resist their separate and united efforts: but the French republicans were not overwhelmed by the multiplicity of dangers. The national convention, informed of the arrestation of their commissioners, and the defection of Dumourier, manifested that rapid energy which ever distinguished the French revolutionists in emergency and danger, and adopted efficient measures to preserve the tranquillity of the metropolis, and defend the frontiers against the invading host. The northern army was reorganized, and general Dampierre being reappointed provisional commander in chief, reoccupied the camp at Famars in French Hainault, near the right bank of the Scheldt. The confederate army was posted at Kieverain on the frontiers of Austrian Hainault, with their right extending to St. Amand, and their left to Bavie, so as to blockade Conde, threaten Valenciennes, and even to overawe Maubeuge. The French general proposed to drive the allies from so advantageous a position, and to relieve Conde. On the 1st of May he began the execution of this design, by attempting to dislodge the Austrians from several villages which they possessed, but was repulsed with the loss of near a thousand killed and wounded. Dampierre undismayed by this check, and encouraged by reinforcements which were just arrived, marched on a second time, with three formidable columns against the

captain of the navy, a near relation of mine, is a curious illustration of these sentiments. On the 22d of March arrived at Portsmouth from Jamaica, the Falcon sloop of war, captain Bisset, having captured off Ushant a French privateer. Captain Bisset was not apprised of a war between this country and France, till he fell in with the above privateer, who bore down upon the Falcon, but perceiving her to be a sloop of war, she immediately hauled her wind, and fired her stern. Captain Bisset, astonished at this conduct, instantly stood after her, and coming up with her, demanded the reason of such conduct: when he was told by the commander of the privateer, "*that France had declared war against all the world.*" The Falcon then fired a few guns, and the French ship struck her colours, and was taken possession of by the Falcon.

Prussian lines at St. Amand, and maintained a long, severe, and bloody contest, till succours from the Austrians under Clairfait, obliged him to make a precipitate retreat, after leaving two thousand men on the field of battle. His immediate object being to relieve Conde, he still threatened the Prussians, who were now joined by the British troops under the duke of York. Intending to confine his attack to the right wing, he feigned an intention of assailing the whole line; and advancing to the wood of Vicoigne, he began the charge. On his left were constructed several strong batteries, where were posted ten thousand men drawn from the garrison of Lisle. Against this numerous force the Coldstream guards, with some other British troops, were despatched. This heroic band, regardless of numbers, checked the enemy's batteries with their fieldpieces; and after one discharge of musketry, rushed forward with fixed bayonets. Terrible in every species of warfare, British soldiers are irresistible in close fight; when no dexterity can elude the force of personal prowess; and hence the opportunity of charging bayonets has rarely failed to assure victory to our countrymen. Our combatants made an impression on their antagonists, which the French soon saw they could not withstand man to man; they had, therefore, recourse to their chief excellence, missiles; with rapid activity they wheeled round artillery from the front to the flank, and opened with grape shot upon the gallant English. Dreadfully annoyed, the British forces disdained to fly: they kept their ground, repulsed the multitudes of the enemy, and in the conflict mortally wounded Dampierre.² The French had gone forth to battle in the most assured confidence, thinking they had only Prussian tactics and intrepidity to oppose their rapidly, active genius and valour; but finding it was a very different undertaking to combat the energy of British heroism, they retreated within their lines, nor afterwards attempted offensive operations in a quarter secured by so formidable champions. From this period to the 23d of May, the French did not venture out of their lines; the allies, on the other hand, encouraged by the impression

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1793.

British soldiers supremely excellent in close fight,

in spite of French numbers and artillery, by the bayonet decide the fate of the day.

CHAP.
LII

1795.

Battle of
Famars.Blockade
and sur-
render of
Conde.Siege of
Valencien-
nes.

which was made by the action of the 8th, resolved to make a general attack on the camp at Famars, that covered the approaches to Valenciennes. The dispositions for this grand object being finished, the 23d of May was fixed for executing the design. At daybreak the British and Hanoverians assembled under the command of the duke of York, and the Austrians and German auxiliaries under the prince of Cobourg and general Clairfait. Great pains had been employed to conceal the projected attack, until its execution should be commenced. A fog somewhat retarded the advance of the troops, but at the same time concealed their approaches; until the sun penetrating through the mist, displayed to the astonished French the allies in four columns, proceeding towards their camp. A tremendous fire of artillery began the action on both sides: the contest soon became closer; and one of the Austrian columns was nearly overpowered, when the Hanoverians and British repulsed its assailants: at length the combined troops, led by the British, and headed by the duke of York and general Abercrombie, entirely defeated the French army. During night the duke of York refreshed his forces, resolved to attack the enemy's fortifications the next morning; but in the night the republicans abandoned the intrenchments which they had formed with such pains and expense, and left the way open to Valenciennes. About the same time bodies of Dutch and Austrian troops employed in the maritime Netherlands, drove the French invaders on that side within their frontiers.

CONDE, as we have seen, was in a state of blockade: the town was not provided with a sufficient quantity of provisions to sustain a long siege: the governor (general Chancel), therefore, about this period ordered the women and children to quit the place. As the diminution of consumers tended to prolong a blockade, the prince of Wirtemberg, who commanded on that service, would not suffer their departure; opposed and prevented repeated attempts. The besieged, after a very brave and obstinate resistance, and enduring with the most persevering fortitude all the rigours of famine, were, on the 10th of July, obliged to surrender at discretion. But a much more arduous enterprise, undertaken by the allies, was the siege of Valen-

ciennes ; and the victory at Famars having enabled them to approach, they formed a regular investment. Valenciennes is situate on the left bank of the Scheldt, opposite to the camp which the French had recently occupied. Its fortifications, among the chief efforts of Vauban's genius, rendered it a post of extraordinary strength. The garrison consisted of about eleven thousand men : Custine, appointed on the death of Dampierre to take the command of the northern army, found it impossible to relieve the fortress, which was therefore obliged to depend upon its own strength. The allies, conscious of their force, and confident of ultimate success, summoned the fortress to surrender : the summons was disregarded ; and being repeated, was still unavailing : the allies, therefore, proceeded with their approaches. A difference of opinion prevailed between the two chief engineers of Britain and of the emperor respectively, colonel Moncrief and monsieur Ferasis. The British officer, less regarding customary modes than efficient means, proposed to plant batteries immediately under the walls of the city, instead of approaching it by regular parallels.^a The German officer, adhering closely to experimental tactics, proposed to proceed in the manner which had been so long in use ; and his opinion was adopted by the council of war. On the morning of the 14th of June the trenches were opened ; and Ferasis directed the siege under the superintending command of the duke of York. The successive parallels were conducted with distinguished skill, and finished with uncommon expedition ; this despatch being powerfully promoted by the British guards ; who, from their habits of working in the coal barges on the Thames, were enabled to do more work in a given time than an equal number of any other soldiers.^b In the beginning of July the besiegers were able to bring two hundred pieces of heavy artillery to play without intermission on the town, and the greater part of it was reduced to ashes. The smallness of the garrison, compared with the extent of the fortifications to be defended, prevented general Ferrand, the commander, from attempting

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Strength
of the
fortress.

Opera-
tions.

^a A New Annual Register, 1793, page 187.
390.

^b See Macfarlane, vol. iv. page

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1793.

Captured
after a siege
of six
weeks, in
the name
of the em-
peror.

Sentiments
of Burke
and his vo-
taries on
this sub-
ject,

frequent sorties : in one of which the garrison made on the 5th of July, however, they were very successful, killed several of the enemy, and spiked some cannon. A considerable part of the war was carried on under ground, by numerous mines and countermines, which both besiegers and besieged constructed. The chief of these were, one which the besiegers formed under the glacis, and one under the horn work of the fortress.^c These mines were completed and charged on the 25th of July, and in the night, between nine and ten o'clock, were sprung with complete success. The English and Austrians immediately embraced the opportunity to throw themselves into the covered way, of which they made themselves masters. The duke of York now, for the third time, summoned the place to surrender; and the governor seeing no hopes from farther defence, capitulated; by the capitulation the troops taken in the garrison were allowed to retire into France, on swearing that they would not, during the war, serve against any of the allied powers; and the duke of York took possession of Valenciennes in the name of the emperor of Germany.

THOSE promoters of war with the French republicans who desired the restoration of monarchy as the chief object of hostilities, disapproved of various circumstances in the capture of Valenciennes, and indeed in the principle on which the campaign was conducted; as, according to their hypothesis, the legitimate object of the war in which the confederacy was engaged was the reestablishment of monarchy, the emigrant princes and other exiles ought to have had the chief direction in its councils and conduct; whereas these were really employed as mercenaries. On the same hypothesis Valenciennes and other towns captured, ought to be possessed in the name of Lewis XVII. as king of France, and of his uncle the count of Provence, as lawful regent during the young king's minority; and troops capitulating ought to be restricted from serving against French royalists, as well as the allied powers. These observations were fair and consistent inferences, if it had been admitted that the combined powers were actually,

^c New Annual Register, 1793, page 190.

as the English opposition asserted, fighting for the restoration of the monarchical constitution:^d but according to British ministers, and the greater number of their parliamentary votaries, the purpose of the war was not a counter revolution in France, but the attainment of security against the French projects of aggrandizement, and dissemination of revolt; that the most effectual means for this purpose was the reduction of her power, without any regard to her internal government; that we were to reduce her strength in the present as in former wars, by capturing, according to our respective force, her towns and possessions. Indeed, the confederates at present seemed to proceed on the same principle of conquering warfare which had been practised by the grand alliance for humbling the power of Lewis XIV. To adopt the language of works less specially devoted to the support of ministerial politics, than to the restoration of monarchy in France; they were rather *anti-gallicans*, warring against physical France, on the general principles of former times, than *antijacobins*, warring against moral France, on the peculiarly requisite principles of present times. On the one hand, the object of Mr. Burke, however impolitic and impracticable it may have been deemed, was much more definite than the objects of Mr. Pitt, as far as these were explained: on the other, the objects of Mr. Pitt being conceived to be merely anti-gallican, were much more agreeable to the prevailing sentiments of Britons than the avowal of a combination would have been, for interfering in the internal polity of France, and reestablishing a government which, in its former exercise, Britain so very much disapproved. The capture of French towns in the name of the young prince, as sovereign of a country that had renounced its authority, would have been an avowal of a counter revolutionary project, which the British government disavowed, and which the majority of the British nation would have censured. The appropriation and capitulation of Valenciennes were therefore perfectly consonant to the professed views with which

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1793.

are different from those of Mr. Pitt and his co-adjusters.

^d The most eloquent and illustrious advocate of this doctrine, Mr. Burke, exhibits this theory in his remarks on the policy of the allies, begun in October, 1793.

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LII.

1793.

Successes
of the
Prussians.
Mentz is
taken.

France is
torn by
dissensions.

The Mountain excite
a clamour
against the
Girondists.

Establish-
ment of the
revolution-
ary tribu-
nal.

the allies, having completed the purposes of defence and recovery, had invaded the French Netherlands. While the allies were thus engaged in the Netherlands in strengthening the power of the emperor on the Rhine, they were occupied in recovering the captures of the French. On the 20th of June the Prussian army invested Mentz; and after a regular and vigorous siege, and a very gallant defence, it capitulated on the 22d of July.

WHILE the confederates were making such advances on the frontiers of France, the republic was entirely torn with dissensions. The Girondists, who had been long declining in authority, and who were more than ever abhorred by the Mountain, since their desire to save the king, had constantly supported Dumourier against the invectives of Marat and the jacobins. As soon as Dumourier was driven into exile, the Mountain raised an outcry against his late protectors the Girondists. They were represented to the furious multitude as a band of traitors and counter revolutionists. The municipality of Paris, and the jacobin clubs, resounded with complaints, threats, and imprecations, against the party in the convention which retained some sentiments of humanity, some love of order, and some regard for justice. The Girondist party still possessed considerable influence in the convention; but the Mountain, gratifying the Parisian rabble with blood and plunder, exercised the supreme command in the city. In March was established the revolutionary tribunal for trying offences against the state. This celebrated and dreadful court, consisting of six judges, was wholly without appeal. The crimes on which it was to pronounce were vague, undefined, and undefinable; extending not merely to actions, but to most secret thoughts. On the 1st of April a decree was passed abolishing the inviolability of members of the convention when accused of crimes against the state.

THE chiefs of the Brissotines appeared to be astonished and confounded at these daring and desperate measures of their inveterate adversaries, confident in their power and popularity; and made no vigorous opposition to decrees which were evidently intended to pave the way to their

destruction.* It was now manifest that the Girondists were inferior to their antagonists in vigour and decision; and, notwithstanding the intellectual and literary accomplishments of the leaders of the party, grossly deficient in practical talents for government; that, therefore, they must finally sink under the contest of which they were unequal to the management. The Mountain had not only in its favour the jacobin club and the dregs of the people of Paris, but it knew that the triumphant party in that immense city, from terror or obedience, was able to command, throughout the whole extent of the republic; and whilst the Girondists were reasoning, deliberating, and menacing, the Mountain conspired, struck, and reigned. On the 31st of May, early in the morning, the tocsin was sounded; the barriers were shut; Brissot, Roland, and many others of the most distinguished Girondists were seized and committed to prison by a force devoted to Robespierre. Terror quickly seized all minds; and the theoretic republic of ingenious, but unwise and unprincipled innovators, became subject to a detestable and bloody tyranny. Robespierre, Danton, Marat, Collot d'Herbois, Billaud, and Couthon, became rulers of France. They associated with themselves ferocious individuals whose talents were necessary to the administration, and who consented to serve them through fear, ambition or policy. They hastily drew up the celebrated constitution of 1793; and no policy ever existed more absurd, or more favourable to anarchy. Legislation was confined to a single council, the members of which were elected without any qualification of property: the executive power was among twenty-four ministers, appointed by the convention, and dismissed at their pleasure. This government, the most absolute and the most ferocious of which there has ever been an example, was confined to two sections, consisting of twelve deputies. The one was called the *Committee of public safety*, and the other the *Committee of general safety*. They were to be renewed every month; but by one of the incalculable effects of fear, which blinds those whom it governs, the convention, divesting itself of its inviolability,

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1793.
The Girondists possessed a speculative ingenuity, but wanted practical ability. The Mountain superior in decision and daring atrocity. The Gironde leaders are committed to prison.

Robespierre and his associates become rulers of France. System of terror reigns. Constitution of 1793. Singular absurdity and anarchy.

Committees of public and general safety.

* See Belsham's history, vol. v. p. 62.

† See Segur's History of Frederic William, v. iii.

it enabled them to accuse all persons obnoxious to themselves as traitorous correspondents with foreign enemies. The war also, so much engaged the anxious attention of the people, that they had less time to brood over the internal sufferings of their country. Pressed on all sides by invaders, who they conceived were desirous of dictating to them in the arrangement of their own government, an ardent zeal to maintain national independence drew off their thoughts from internal despotism. The same patriotic spirit was inflamed, not only by the fears of foreign interference in their government, but by the belief that the dismemberment of their country was intended.

THE pressure of the confederates, and their supposed designs, cherished the ferocious tyranny of Robespierre. Detestable as this relentless tyrant was, yet, in one momentous object, he promoted the first wish of Frenchmen ; not to be controlled by foreign invaders. In opposing the confederacy of princes, the revolutionary government displayed an energy that triumphed over all obstacles. Much of this energy, no doubt, is imputable to the very wickedness of the system. The understanding, employing its invention and foresight in seeking means for gratifying passions, without the least restraint from conscience, may certainly be more efficacious, than if repressed in its devices by religion and virtue. The extinction of every pious and moral sentiment, and the removal of the sanctions of a future state, prepared minds for every enormity. It paved the way for bearing down all opposition to the executive power proceeding by massacre or any other crime that might most expeditiously effect its purposes. The revolutionary government, in its total violation of justice, found ample resources for military supply. *The terrible system* wanted money : a forced loan placed the fortunes of all men at its disposal. It wanted provisions, ammunition, arms : it put all physical resources under REQUISITION.¹ It wanted men : its war minister, bold in conception as unrestrained by humanity and justice, said,

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LII.

1793.

The pressure of the war facilitates their atrocities.

Forced loan.

Requisitions.

¹ See decree of August 15th, 1793, requiring all Frenchmen to be in permanent readiness for the service of the armies with every kind of warlike stores, and even every material for making arms, powder, ball, and all other kinds of ammunition or provision for military service.

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LII.

1793.

Bold
scheme of
the war
minister to
raise the
nation in
mass.

Efficacy of
this sys-
tem
It over-
comes the
insurgents
of La Ven-
dee.

Murder-
ous cruel-
ties.

“let us confound all the calculations of experienced war-
riors : ours is a new case ; raise the whole nation in
“MASSE : overpower discipline by multitude ; bear down
“tactical skill and experience ; and tire out their efforts
“by fresh and incessant relays : consume your enemies by
“the fatigue of exertion.” Scarcely were the orders giv-
en when twelve hundred thousand men^k marched out to
meet the enemy. Of these, great numbers, no doubt,
were propelled by fear, and the assured alternative of
massacre if they refused ; but whatever might have been
the motive, the effect was prodigious. To hasten the
operation of such a multitude, vehicles were contrived for
carrying both men and cannon with extraordinary despatch
against the enemy. Immense bodies were sent to quell
the insurgents of La Vendee, and succeeded in repressing
the attempts of these royalists. Marseilles yielded with
little contest to the revolutionary arms. Lyons, instead
of following the example of Marseilles, made a most reso-
lute resistance, and for two months heroically withstood
an active siege. General Kellerman, who commanded the
army of the Alps, was ordered to besiege that city ;
but not answering to the impatience of the convention, he
was removed, and general Doppet appointed to succeed
him ; to whom the inhabitants, who were not only unused
to arms, but very ill provided with the means of defence,
as well as the necessaries of life, on the 8th of October,
were obliged to surrender. A great part of the city was
reduced to ashes by a continual bombardment. The vic-
tors, who had sustained considerable loss during the siege,
were filled with furious resentment, and gratified their
revenge by the most savage and atrocious cruelty. The
wretched victims, too numerous for the individual opera-
tion of the guillotine, were driven in large bodies, with the
most brutal and blasphemous ceremonies, into the Rhone ;
or hurried in crowds to the squares to be massacred by
musketry and artillery.^l Immense bodies of troops, under
general Cartaux, proceeded to Toulon : an advanced corps
having arrived in the neighbourhood of that city, captain
Keith Elphinstone, of the navy, landing from the fleet,

^k See Annual Register, 1793.

^l See Otridge's Annual Register for the year 1793, p. 275.

and joining a body of English and Spanish infantry, attacked and routed the enemy with considerable loss. Soon after, general O'Hara, arriving from Gibraltar, took the command of the British forces. Attacking the enemy, he defeated and put them to flight; but pursuing the fugitives very eagerly, he unexpectedly encountered a large force entirely fresh. In endeavouring to draw off his soldiers safely to Toulon, he was unavoidably engaged in a conflict with superior numbers; and after an obstinate contest he was wounded and taken prisoner. Near a thousand of the British and their allies were either killed or captured. As an immense mass of French was now approaching, against which to defend the town the remaining handful was totally incompetent, it was judged expedient to evacuate the place with all possible despatch. Accordingly, the allies made dispositions for withdrawing and saving as many of the inhabitants as could be removed; and for destroying all the shipping, stores, and provisions, that could not be preserved by any other expedient from falling into the hands of the enemy. This service was performed very completely: the troops were carried off without the loss of a man; and several thousands of the loyal inhabitants of Toulon were sheltered in the British ships. Sir Sidney Smith, to whose active intrepidity was intrusted the conflagration of the magazines, storehouses, and arsenals, with the ships in the harbour, most effectually performed this hazardous and extraordinary duty. On this occasion, fifteen ships of the line, with many frigates and smaller vessels, were destroyed, and an immense quantity of naval stores. Three ships of the line, and several frigates accompanied the British fleet. By this destruction the French navy received a blow very difficult to be retrieved.

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LII.

1793.

The
French
force the
English to
evacuate
Toulon.

WHILE the French, rising in a mass, crushed revolt and expelled foreign enemies in the south, their gigantic efforts effected in the north a momentous change in the events of the campaign. After the reduction of Valenciennes, the French were compelled to abandon a very strong position which Custine occupied behind the Scheldt, denominated Cæsar's camp. A council of war was now held by the allies to consider the most effectual plans of

Nether-
lands.

CHAP.
LII.

1793.

Progress
of the
duke of
York and
the British
troops.Victory at
Lincelles.His high-
ness invests
Dunkirk
with rea-
sonable
hopes of
success.

pursuing their successes. Generals Cobourg and Clairfait proposed,^m while the French were under an alarm from the disasters in the Netherlands, to penetrate towards Paris, while a force should be sent under cover of the British fleets, to cooperate with the loyalists in Brittany: the duke of York was of opinion that it would be much more advisable to extend their conquests upon the frontiers. He proposed that the army should divide; that he, at the head of his countrymen, the Dutch and Hanoverians should attack the enemy on the side of West Flanders, while the allies continued their operations in the Eastern Netherlands. It was concerted that the allies should besiege Quesnoy, and that the duke of York marching to the coast where he could receive maritime cooperation, should invest Dunkirk. This port has ever been, in time of war, a very great receptacle for privateers, and extremely troublesome to the English trade in its approach to the Downs. Therefore the British cabinet, as well as the commander in chief, were eager to wrest from the enemy such means of annoyance. Separating from the allies his highness marched towards Dunkirk; and on the 18th of August he reached Menin.ⁿ The Dutch under the hereditary prince of Orange, attacked a French post at Lincelles in that neighbourhood, and were repulsed; but the British troops, though very inferior in force, carried the post with fixed bayonets, and defeated the enemy. The French no longer venturing to obstruct his advances, on the 22d his highness arrived before Dunkirk. On the 24th he attacked the French outposts, and compelled them to take refuge within the town.^o In this engagement, however, he incurred some loss both of men and officers; and among the latter the Austrian general Dalton, so noted, as we have seen during the revolt of the Netherlands from the emperor Joseph. On the 28th of August the siege was regularly commenced by the duke of York, while general Freytag with an army of auxiliaries, was posted to cover the besiegers. A considerable naval armament from Great Britain, intended to cooperate with a military force, by some unaccountable delay did not

^m Annual Register, 1793.
^o Ibid. 273.

ⁿ Otridge's Annual Register, 1793, p. 271.

arrive nearly so soon as was appointed and expected. His highness nevertheless carried on the siege with great vigour and skill. Meanwhile the republican troops, commanded by general Houchard poured from all quarters, in an enormous mass. Attacking the army of Freytag the 7th of September, after several severe actions, in which the Germans made a most vigorous resistance, the French at last overpowered them by numbers, defeated them, and compelled them to make a very precipitate retreat. In this rout Freytag himself, and prince Adolphus of England, youngest son of his Britannic majesty, were taken prisoners, but in a short time rescued. The duke of York, from the defeat of the covering army, found it necessary to raise the siege. Before he had departed, the garrison, informed of Houchard's success, made a sally, in which they were repulsed with great loss; while the besiegers also suffered considerably, and among other officers were deprived of the celebrated engineer colonel Moncrief, who was killed by a cannon ball. Houchard now attacked a second time all that remained of the covering army, gained a complete and decisive victory, and with his daily increasing mass, hastened against the duke of York. The British commander found it absolutely necessary to withdraw from Dunkirk, to prevent his gallant band from being totally overpowered by such an infinite multitude of enemies. The unavoidable hurry of his retreat compelled our prince to leave his heavy artillery, and a great quantity of ammunition, which fell into the hands of the enemy. The military chest was preserved by being hastily put on board a frigate.

THE miscarriage of this enterprise produced great censure among those who judge of plans by events; but at the time that the enterprise was concerted, there were reasonable hopes of success; and the attainment of the object would have been extremely advantageous to Britain. The delay of the gunboats and artillery, must certainly have retarded the execution of the design; but the final disappointment was owing to causes which no man judging from military experience could have possibly anticipated. The new French expedient of arming in mass had not yet been known to the allies, and the rapid means

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1793.
Late arrival of the artillery and naval force. Progress of the siege notwithstanding. An immense mass of French arrives.

The British prince is obliged to abandon the attempt.

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1793.

The
French
mass com-
pels the
Austrians
to retire
behind the
Sambre.

of bringing forward their immense multitudes were no less extraordinary and astonishing. The prodigious hordes thus carried to the scene of warfare, must have discomfited the British project, however wise the undertaking, well concerted the plan, seasonable and efficient the preparations. Ends were to be sought, and means to be employed according to probabilities, founded in the experience that then existed. From so unprecedented a collection of armed multitudes, escape without very considerable loss was a great achievement; so great indeed, that the enemy conceived it impracticable: they apprehended that if general Houchard had discharged his duty, he might have effectually cut off the British retreat. Under this impression the French general was afterwards denounced, and suffered by the sentence of the revolutionary tribunal.

WHILE the duke of York was engaged before Dunkirk, the allies invested Cambray, Bouchain, and Quesnoy; the two former they found impracticable, the latter they executed. Prince Cobourg having repulsed a detachment sent to the relief of Quesnoy, the fortress surrendered to general Clairfait on the 11th of September. Soon after this capture the duke of York rejoined the confederates. The French army of the north, after raising the siege of Dunkirk, took a strong position in the neighbourhood of Maubeuge, where they were immediately blockaded by the whole united force of the allies, collected under the prince of Cobourg. The republican armies, after the accusation of Houchard, were intrusted to the command of Jourdain, who having formerly served in the French army in a humble rank, and afterwards became a shopkeeper in a petty village,^o but having resumed the military profession, was by the French government deemed worthy of the supreme command; and, as the allies experienced, did signal honour to the penetration of his employers. Jourdain, on the 13th and 16th of October, attacked prince Cobourg with such numbers, vigour, and effect, as to compel him to abandon his position, and repass the Sambre. The French general now freed from blockade, was at liberty to employ offensive operations. Detachments were

^o See New Annual Register for 1793. It is there said he was a haberdasher.

accordingly sent to make inroads into maritime Flanders. They took possession of Werwick and Menin, from whence they advanced to Furnes: they proceeded to Nieuport, which they besieged and greatly damaged; but the place was saved by having recourse to inundation. It was some time before the allied forces were able to stop the progress of the republicans, and their generals even trembled for the fate of Ostend. A considerable armament from England, however, being at that time preparing for the West Indies, under sir Charles Grey, their destination was altered; and by arriving at this fortunate moment at Ostend, they saved the Low Countries for the present campaign.

ON the Rhine, after the capture of Mentz, a number of petty actions took place, in which the French were generally successful; but no event of importance ensued.^p During the month of September, the duke of Brunswic gained several advantages, and the allies invested Landau, the siege of which occupied the remainder of the campaign. A French army commanded by general Landremont, strongly posted on the Lauter, covered and protected this important fortress. On the 14th of October general Wurmser forced the strong lines of the enemy; and Lautreburg surrendered at discretion, after being evacuated by the republicans. The town of Weissembourg made a longer resistance; part of it, however, was unfortunately burned, and the French before they retreated, set fire to their magazines within the walls, as well as those at Alstade. The French, not disheartened by these losses, made repeated attacks on the enemy's lines, and at last were so successful, that the duke of Brunswic deemed it expedient to raise the siege of Landau, and retire into winter quarters. The armies of the Netherlands finished the campaign about the same time.

ALTHOUGH the continental campaign of 1793 was on the whole successful on the side of the allies, yet its termination was by no means equally auspicious as its preceding periods. From its commencement to the month of

^p See New Annual Register for 1793, p. 192.

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LII.

1793.

The campaign terminates much less favourably than its commencement promised. Gigantic efforts of France, and want of concert among the allies.

Catharine prosecutes her designs against Poland :

proposes a second partition of that territory, and invites the king of Prussia to participate.

Frederic William intent on securing the spoils of Poland.

August, it had been progressively successful ; then, however, the career of victory was arrested. In point of actual possession, the allies had preserved Holland, and recovered the Netherlands ; had retaken Mentz, captured Conde, Quesnoy, and Valenciennes. But it required little discernment to see that the prospect was not now favourable to the confederates, and that the tide of success was turned. The allies never appeared to have established that concert of ends, and consistency of means, without which alliances cannot hope to succeed against a single and well compacted powerful opponent. If it was wise and expedient to seek the restoration of monarchy, their efforts should have been directed to that sole object. Separate aggrandizement, even were it in itself justifiable, necessarily created jealousy and distrust. The king of Prussia began to conceive that the successes of the campaign were advancing the power of Austria, while he had a share only in its expense and disasters.

FROM the dismemberment of France he could look far no accession, and was, besides, intent upon dismemberment in another quarter. Catharine having attained her wish of engaging the German powers in a war with France, had executed her intentions, of destroying the new constitution of Poland, which had tended to extricate that country from its dependence on herself. She invaded Poland with an army of a hundred thousand men, forcibly annulled the constitution at the diet, and to secure the concurrence of the king of Prussia, as well as gratify her own ambition, she proposed a second partition of the Polish territories ; that the king of Prussia should for his share receive the cities of Dantzick and Thorn with Great Poland, while her own portion of the spoliation was nearly half the remainder more contiguous to Russia. The Prussian king was more occupied in securing his spoils in Poland, which a band of patriotic heroes still endangered, than in seconding the emperor. On the other hand, the emperor was extremely jealous of the acquisitions of his Prussian ally ; and the bands of the confederacy were evidently loosening.

On her own element, Britain, unincumbered by allies, began the war with signal success. In the West Indies,

the valuable island of Tobago was captured by a British squadron under admiral Laforey, about the beginning of April. From an early period of the French revolution, the West India islands belonging to France, and particularly St. Domingo, had been agitated and convulsed by the revolutionary spirit, and by premature and injudicious attempts to confer the rights of free citizens, in that part of the globe, upon the "people of colour," who constitute a large proportion of the inhabitants.^q From the dreadful internal commotions, St. Domingo was a scene of devastation and bloodshed. In July, fort Jeremie, and cape Nicola Mole, being attacked by the British squadron, surrendered themselves. In the gulf of St. Lawrence, the islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, were captured. In the East Indies, the company's troops, in the first campaign of the war, reduced Pondicherry, and all the settlements of the French on the coasts of Malabar and Coromandel.

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LII.

1793.
Rapid
success of
the British
where
they
fought
alone.

Conquests
in the
West and
East
Indies.

^q See Belsham's History, vol. v. page 101.

CHAP. LIII.

Projects of political reform.—Club of united Irishmen.—Institution and objects.—Convention bill.—Britain.—great numbers are infected with a desire of change.—Causes ignorance, vanity, and visionary enthusiasm more than malignant intention.—Propensity in the lower orders to be spokesmen—arises from the free interchange of opinion which Britons enjoy—at this time is abused.—Dangerous tendency of certain political associations and sentiments.—Scotland.—Messrs. Muir and Palmer—trials of for sedition.—They are sentenced to transportation.—The punishment is represented as excessive, and even illegal.—Scotch convention for new modelling the constitution—consists chiefly of persons of low condition—dispersed by the civil power.—Their leaders are tried and sentenced to transportation.—Meeting of parliament.—Mr. Fox and his supporters recommend peace—arguments against and for.—Mr. Pitt's reasoning on the war, and the internal system of France.—Lord Mornington's view of the subject.—A great majority approve of the continuance of the war.—Messrs. Fox and Sheridan impute to the combination the astonishing efforts of France.—Discussion of the question with whom should we treat.—The opponents of the war predict the dissolution of the confederacy, and the triumph of the French.—Mr. Fox complains that the object of the war is indefinite—contrasted with former wars.—He prophesies that the war with France, like the war with America, would terminate in disappointment.—Various motions for peace—rejected.—Questions respecting the trials for sedition in Scotland.—Mr. Adam's proposed amendment of the Scottish criminal law—debate negatived.—Proposed inquiry into the conduct of the Scottish judges.—His speech on that subject.—Reply of the lord advocate.—The motion of Mr. Adam is rejected.—Third proposition of Mr. Adam for assimilating

the Scottish to the English criminal law.—Musterly speech of Mr. Adam on that subject.—Answer of Mr. Dundas.—Reply of Mr. Fox.—The proposition is negatived.—Progress of the innovating spirit among the lower ranks.—Seditious lectures against the British constitution, and kingly government.—Proceedings of the democratic societies.—Plan of a national convention—discovered by ministers—leaders arrested, and papers seized.—Committees of both houses appointed to examine their papers—from the reports, Mr. Pitt proposes a bill for detaining suspected persons without allowing them the benefit of the habeas corpus act—bill passed into a law.—Ministers, including lord Loughborough the chancellor, consider the crimes charged as high treason.—Lord Thurlow asserts, that by the law of England they are not treason.—Supplies, subsidies, and taxes.—Debate on the introduction of Hessian troops.—Apprehensions of an invasion.—Voluntary contributions for levying troops.—Session closes.—Internal proceedings in France.—Jacobin faction and Robespierre paramount.—Iniquitous trial, condemnation, and punishment of the queen.—Brissot and the other Gironde prisoners put to death.—Orleans shares the same fate.—Danton overborne by Robespierre.—The Parisian mob adore Robespierre.—Real talents and character.

THE chief internal occurrences of this year regarded projects of political reform. In Ireland a society was established for promoting a complete emancipation of the catholics; that is a thorough exemption from all legal disabilities, and a radical reform of parliament on the principles of universal suffrage and annual elections. This club, constructed on the model of the affiliated jacobins, took the name of the *United Irishmen*, which was afterwards productive of such dangerous consequences. In the Irish parliament an act had been passed, granting relief to the catholics, but by no means so extensive as their supporters in and out of parliament desired. They were allowed to exercise all civil and military offices under the crown, except in the very highest departments of the law and state; and they were prohibited from sitting in par-

CHAP.
LIII.

1793.
Project of
political
reform.

Club of
United
Irishmen.

CHAP.
LIII.1793.
Institution
and objects.Conven-
tion bill.Britain.
Great
numbers
are infect-
ed with the
desire of
change.Causes—
ignorance,
vanity, and
visionary
enthusi-
asm, more
than mal-
ignant in-
tentions.

liament. The executive government appeared well inclined to extend the relief, but the apprehensions of the protestant party were so deeply rooted, as to render it inexpedient in the legislature to proceed any farther at that period. The united Irishmen, as a party, were not particularly connected with the catholics, but consisted of the votaries of innovation^r in general; held assemblies for concerting and preparing means to promote their schemes of change. These meetings being considered as dangerous in the present ferment, a law was passed by the Irish parliament for preventing such assemblies being specifically described, both in nature and purpose, so as to restrain innovating cabals: the new act was known by the title of the convention bill. While the legislature ~~ex-~~deavoured to prevent pernicious assemblies in Ireland, projects were formed in Britain by bodies of individuals for holding a convention, which should speak the national voice, and effect such changes as in the judgments of these politicians should appear necessary for the regeneration of Britain.

THE revolutionary doctrines of France spreading into this island, produced a desire of change, which was different in object and extent according to the circumstances, knowledge, and character of their votaries. Men of desperate fortune or reputation might desire a subversion of government, in hopes of profiting by the general confusion, and no doubt there were such men in the clubs which were supposed to seek revolution. These were a kind of associates that revolutionary leaders might be sure to acquire, according to the believed probability of success. But if their conduct be candidly reviewed, by far the greater number of the associated votaries of indefinite change will appear to have been misled by folly, ignorance, or visionary enthusiasm, rather than prompted by malignant intentions. A passion which produced the addition of many members to these clubs, was vanity. They wished to make a figure in spheres for which their education and condition rendered them totally unfit. The supposed exaltation of the people in France, inspired

^r See Reports of Irish Committees in 1797 and 1798.

many well disposed manufacturers, mechanics, tradesmen, and peasants with a desire of reaching the same distinction, and stimulated them to exercise their talents as orators and lawgivers. There is, indeed, in the lower orders of our countrymen a peculiar propensity to oratory: the free constitution under which they live empowers them to utter their sentiments and opinions with open boldness; the love of social and convivial intercourse very naturally following an unrestrained interchange of thoughts and feelings, produces clubs, which at this period were very numerous. These requiring some kind of methodical arrangement, introduced some kind of order and system in addresses and replies beyond the desultory irregularity of conversation. Hence arose debate, which generated emulation to distinguish themselves in their circle of companions; the members respectively tried to be spokesmen. As their oratorical talents, in their own apprehension, increased, they wished for a wider field of exercise; this they found in vestries or other meetings of local arrangement; or sometimes betook themselves to debating societies, where they could exhibit their eloquence and wisdom on subjects of erudition, philosophy, and politics. From these causes there was, especially through the great towns, a predisposition in people of low rank, without education and literature, to recreate themselves with speeches and dissertations.^s The visions of French equality held out to their fancies and passions pleasing images and powerful incentives; increased the objects of their eloquence and political exertions, proposed so wide fields for exercise, and promised such rewards as stimulated great numbers to seek change, less from dissatisfaction with the present than from sanguine expectations of the future; and rendered them desirous of reforming assemblies, not so much with a view to overthrow the established constitution, to crush king, lords, and commons, as to distinguish themselves in the proposed conventions. That some of the ringleaders desired the subversion of our existing establishments, admits very

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1793.
Propensity
in the low-
er orders
to be
spokes-
men;

arises from
the free in-
terchange
of opinion
which Bri-
ttons enjoy:

at this time
is abused.

^s At the trial of Hardy, the shoemaker, one Wills a dancingmaster, who had accompanied the defendant to the corresponding society, being interrogated as to his own motives for resorting to that meeting, replied that he had a pleasure in hearing the conversation of clever men. See State Trials in 1794.

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Dangerous
tendency
of certain
political
associa-
tions and
sentiments.

little doubt; but that a total misconception of the purposes of their leaders, vanity and the love of distinction, and not treasonable motives, actuated the chief portion of their votaries we may candidly and fairly presume. But, whatever might be the intention of the individuals respectively, the tendency of such assemblages collectively, in a season of revolutionary enthusiasm, was evidently dangerous; and required the unremitting vigilance of government, to restrain and correct delusion and to chastise mischievous deluders.

Scotland.
Messrs.
Muir and
Palmer,

trials of,
for sedi-
tion.

IN Scotland, two active agitators of political change, messrs. Muir and Palmer, the former an advocate, the latter a dissenting clergyman, were tried for sedition, charged to have been committed in writing and other acts. The following facts were established against Mr. Muir at his trial: he had actively dispersed in and about Paisley and Glasgow, Paine's Rights of Man and other books and pamphlets of a similar tendency; in conversation expressed his wishes and hopes of changes on the model of France; and purchased works hostile to the British constitution, especially Paine, for people too poor to buy them themselves and so ignorant as to be easily impressed by his exhortations.^t It was farther proved that he was an active and leading member in societies for promoting such doctrines and conduct as Thomas Paine inculcates, and that his rank and situation afforded great weight and influence to his exhortations. Mr. Palmer, an unitarian preacher at Dundee, had been no less active in the east than Mr. Muir in the west, and indeed much more violent. He had either composed or promoted addresses, which stimulated his votaries to enmity against the house of commons and existing orders, and declared the highest privilege of man to be universal suffrage; inveighed against the constituted authorities, their counsels and measures, as oppressive and tyrannical; called on the people to join in resisting these oppressions, and adjured them by every thing that was dear to them, to combine for the preservation of their perishing liberty and the recovery of their long lost rights. These and other pub-

^t Such as Thomas Wilson, barber, Ann Fisher, servant maid, and others in equally humble stations. See Muir's Trial.

lications similar in inflammatory rhapsody, were dispersed with ardent activity by Mr. Palmer, and by a very strenuous agent, George Mcalmer, weaver.^u There could be no doubt that such conduct was seditious, and no valid objection could be made to the evidence. The jury were therefore bound to bring in a verdict *guilty* in each of these cases. In Scotland the sentence in cases of sedition, rests with the judges; and in both these cases the punishment was, that they should be transported for the space of fourteen years beyond the seas, to such place as his majesty, with the advice of his privy council, should think proper. Both these gentlemen possessed fair and unimpeached moral characters, and were deemed enthusiasts in what they conceived to be right, and not intentionally malignant incendiaries. Though this circumstance did not diminish the mischievous tendency of their conduct, yet lessening their moral guilt, it excited a considerable degree of compassion for their destiny. The punishment, indeed, was by very eminent members of the law of Scotland deemed and represented as an assumption of power by the court, which was not allowed by the statute enacting the penalties consequent on the species of sedition charged in the indictment. They were tried on an accusation of *leasing*^x, *making*, a term, which in the Scotch law means stirring up sedition, by spreading false reports between the king and his subjects. It was asserted by Mr. Henry Erskine and others that the punishment annexed by the law of Scotland to this crime, was outlawry,^y and not transportation; that the judges might sentence the convicts to be exiled from Scotland, but that their judgment could not extend to their conveyance to any other place. Others who were neither disposed nor competent to such legal disquisition, censured the judges for adopting the most rigorous mode that even by their own hypothesis could be chosen. Many, however, deemed

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1799.

They are
sentenced
to trans-
portation.

The pun-
ishment is
represent-
ed as ex-
cessive,
and even
illegal.

^u See Trial of Palmer, at the Autumn Circuit at Perth 1793.

^x *Leasing*, a Scotch word, in its general import signifies a *lie*; in law it is applied to the particular species of falsehood described in the text.

^y The punishments are three, fine, imprisonment, or banishment: the question respecting the last was whether it meant merely the *exilium* of the civil law (outlawry), or the *deportatio*, (transportation). There were very respectable authorities on both sides.

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1793.
Scotch
convention
for new
modelling
the consti-
tution,
consists
chiefly of
persons of
low con-
dition,

the ostigation wholesome in example, and beneficial in tendency.

In the end of October, 1793, a club of persons entertaining similar extravagant ideas of reform as messrs. Muir and Palmer, meeting at Edinburgh, denominated themselves *the Scotch convention of delegates* for obtaining annual parliaments and universal suffrage. This notable assembly consisted chiefly of tradesmen and mechanics, a few farmers, many of lower situation, and one or two men of abilities and knowledge, who were unfortunately smitten with the revolutionary contagion. These persons having met, adopted the modes and phraseology of the French convention, accosted each other by the term of *citizen*, divided themselves into *sections*, granted the honour of *sittings*, in humble imitation of their model; and proposed to concert measures with the innovating clubs, especially the London corresponding society, for the attainment of their object. It is remarkable that those who sought universal equality of political privileges, claimed this equality as *an inherent right*, and upon this assumption founded all their theories. Now political power is the inherent right of no individual: every man has a natural right to govern himself, but has no natural right to govern others:² government is the creature of expediency. In every society those ought to govern who are most fit for promoting the general good. All men are not equally qualified for legislation, therefore it is not expedient that all men should have an equal suffrage, either in legislation or in constituting a legislature: the political inequality which these visionary innovators sought to reduce, arose from unequal means of advancing the general welfare which these levellers professed to pursue. On this absurd theory of human rights, without any proof of expediency, these agitators proceeded; but before they had brought their deliberations to a conclusion, they were interrupted by the civil power,³ and dispersed. Skirving,

dispersed
by the civil
power.

² See this doctrine very ably explained by the learned and profound Ferguson's principles of moral and political science, vol. ii. p. 471, on the exercise of legislative power.

³ On this occasion Mr. Elder, the lord provost, peculiarly distinguished himself by his activity, resolution and prompt decision.

Margarot, and Gerald, three of their most active members, were tried for sedition, and received sentence of transportation; which judgment incurred the same censure as the punishment that was appointed for Muir and Palmer. The conduct of the judges who passed the sentence was very much blamed, not only by democrats, but by the constitutional opponents of government; and was not completely approved by many others who were well affected to ministers; but the merits of the judgments afterwards underwent a discussion in parliament.

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Their leaders are tried and sentenced to transportation:

THE session opened on the 21st of January, 1794; and the diversities of political opinion continued to resolve themselves into three classes, the same in principle as before, though somewhat varied in detail, from the course of events. A few, at the head of whom was Mr. Burke, deemed war against regicides indispensably necessary, until monarchy should be restored. A small, but greater number, reckoned the war unwise from the commencement, and a peace conducive to its professed purposes, to be at present attainable. The season of important victory, (according to Mr. Fox and others) all wise politicians thought the best opportunity for concluding a peace. The continuance of war, instead of subjugating France, tended to drive her to desperate efforts.^b We had seen in her recent exertions arming her people in mass, and hurrying them on to the scene of war with unheard of rapidity, the consequences of invading her territories. Continued attempts to trench upon her dominions, would only drive her to still more extraordinary efforts. Besides, to what purpose was the continuance of war; the professed objects of the British government had been attained in the delivery of Holland, and the expulsion of the French from the Netherlands. Unless we proposed to restore monarchy, which ministers said we did not, we were now fighting without an object. A very numerous body, at the head of which was Mr. Pitt, maintained that the object of the war was and uniformly had been the same; the SECURITY of Britain, and general tranquillity.^c The present terrible system of France was totally incompatible with these

1794.

Meeting of parliament.

Mr. Fox and his supporters recommend peace.

Arguments against abolition.

Mr. Pitt's reasoning on the war and the internal system of France.

^b See Parliamentary Debates, 21st January, 1794.

^c Ibid.

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objects : in its dreadful nature it could not last. The people, if properly seconded and supported, would generally revolt against such an oppressive, rapacious, and desolating government. With the present rulers we could not make peace ; but we might expect that their sway would be of short duration : the efforts of the terrible system had far exceeded any reasonable or probable expectation ; but the resources from which they arose, so desperate and iniquitous, afforded in themselves the most certain symptoms and indications of the approaching decay of that fabric with which they were connected. The leading feature in the French revolutionary character, (said the minister) is a spirit of military enterprise, exerted not for the purposes of systematic ambition, but every where in its progress spreading terror and desolation. We are called in the present age to witness the political and moral phenomenon of a mighty and civilized people^e formed into an artificial horde of banditti, throwing off all the restraints which have influenced men in social life, displaying a savage valour directed by a sanguinary spirit, forming rapine and destruction into a system, and perverting into their detestable purposes all the talents and ingenuity which they derived from their advanced state of civilization, all the refinements of art, and the discoveries of science. We behold them uniting the utmost savageness and ferocity of design with consummate contrivance and skill in execution, and seemingly engaged in no less than a conspiracy to exterminate from the face of the earth all honour, humanity, justice, and religion. In this state can there be any question but to resist, where resistance alone can be effectual, till such time, as by the blessing of providence upon our endeavours, we shall have secured the independence of this country, and the general interests of Europe. All the succeeding parties which had prevailed from the deposition of the king, however adverse to each other, had agreed in hostility to this country : the alternative of war and peace did not at present exist. Before we could relinquish the principles on which the war commenced, proof was necessary, either that the

opinions which we had conceived of the views of France were erroneous, that the war was become desperate and impracticable, or that, from some improvement in the system and principles of the French, the justice and necessity which prompted us to commence the war, no longer cooperated. Lord Mornington spoke on the same side, and displayed very extensive information and considerable ability. According to the representation of his lordship, the French views of aggrandizement were unlimited. Their desire of conquest sprang from principles which were subversive of all regular government. The avowals and exhortations of their most admired writers fully proved their schemes of boundless aggression, and their determined hostility to this country.^f But a still surer proof was their conduct, which was uniformly and consistently hostile to this and every other nation within the reach of its influence. Our cause was originally just ; the whole series of events confirmed its justice. But an important point to be considered was the probability of success : the recent efforts of the French arose from causes that could not long exist ; these were the atrocious tyranny of the present government, which embraced men, money, liberty, property, and life, within its grasp. The dreadful fire was consuming the fuel by which it was nourished : their expenditure was enormous ; their finances must be speedily exhausted,^g and leave them no longer the means of so formidable hostilities : they would be compelled to succumb to the just and systematic exertions of the allies. But it was by our warlike efforts only that we could secure ourselves from the inroads of revolutionary France. In proportion as this system of tyranny consumed the property of France, it must endeavour to repair its disordered finances by foreign plunder. It must be

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Lord
Mornington's view
of the
subject.

^f To support his argument, his lordship quoted many extracts from French writings, especially from a pamphlet by Mr. Brissot, which had recently reached England, and which breathed hostility to Britain.

^g This was an argument often repeated by Mr. Pitt at different periods of the war. It was partly founded on the reports and calculations of sir Francis d'Ivernois, who very accurately and justly explained the sources of finance known to former experience ; but in his estimate, not sufficiently allowing for the enthusiastic spirit by which the French republicans were now actuated, did not consider its creative effects. Thence it was that all predictions of French bankruptcy, founded in the application of common rules to a case totally beyond their reach, were completely falsified.

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the immediate interest of a government founded upon principles contrary to those of surrounding nations, to propagate the doctrines abroad by which it subsists at home, and to subvert every constitution which can form a disadvantageous contrast to its own absurdities. Nothing could secure us against the future violence of the French, but an effectual reduction of their power. That was a purpose which we had the most reasonable prospects of ultimately accomplishing, and the strongest inducements to persevere. But even were the French rulers, instead of being eagerly resolved to persevere in a war indispensably necessary to their usurped domination, disposed to accede to terms of equitable accommodation, where was the assurance of their stability? What reliance could we repose on the performance of their engagements? What was the purpose of attempting to negotiate with a government utterly unable to fulfil its stipulations. Not only the characters, the dispositions, and the interests of those who exercised the powers of government of France, but the very nature of that system they had established, rendered a treaty of peace upon safe and honourable terms impracticable at present, and consequently required a vigorous and unremitting prosecution of the war. A very great majority in parliament, convinced that peace could not be preserved with the present rulers of France, and confident that their extraordinary efforts would speedily exhaust their own source, approved the continuance of the war, and its most vigorous prosecution.

A great majority approves of the continuance of the war.

The opponents of the war impute to the combination the astonishing efforts of France.

Messrs. Fox and Sheridan predict the dissolution of the confederacy, and the triumph of the French.

Mr. Fox and Mr. Sheridan persevered in maintaining the inexpediency of the war, the improbability of success, and the wisdom of peace. They denied that France had been hostile to this country. The chief charge of the present rulers against their predecessors was, that they involved their country in a war with Britain contrary to the interests and wishes of the people. But whencesoever the war had originated, the exertions and events afforded no reasonable ground for expectation that the objects, even if just, were attainable. The efforts of the French arose from the enthusiasm of conceived liberty and patriotism. So devoted (it was said) are the whole people of France to the cause which they have espoused, so determined are

they to maintain the struggle in which they have engaged, so paramount and domineering is the enthusiastic spirit of liberty in their bosoms, so insignificant, comparatively, are all other considerations, and finally, so bitter and active is their animosity against the conspiring powers which surround them, that individual property has ceased to be regarded even by the possessor, but as subsidiary to the public cause; and the government which had demanded these unprecedented sacrifices, yet retains its power, and does not appear to have impaired its popularity.^h France, by the pressure of the allies upon her frontier, had become a school of military wonder; and if other governments persisted in their design of thus goading her to almost preternatural exertions, we should see a military republic firmly established in the heart of Europe.ⁱ Such was the energetic spirit of the French, that we might be sure, with the resources that spirit would call into action, we could never succeed. In answering the ministerial objection, with whom could we treat, we might negotiate with the existing rulers, and depend for adherence to pacific engagements, neither on the justice or stability of the present set, but on their interest, and the interests of their successors, whoever they might be, and of the whole French nation. Interest, and not good faith, had been our security in our various treaties with the despotic princes of France. The confederacy, in which we endeavoured to make an impression upon France, composed of heterogeneous materials pursuing different objects, Mr. Fox strongly and repeatedly predicted, must be soon dissolved. If the objects of the war had been just and wise, the plans were disjointed, inconsistent and consequently ineffectual. But ministers, said Mr. Fox, never defined the object: they vaguely told us we were fighting for security; but wherein was that security to consist. In former wars our objects had been definite, to prevent the aggrandizement of France,^k by the accession of one of her princes to the throne of Spain;^l to protect our merchantmen from the search of Spaniards;^m to defend our

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Discussion
of the
question
with whom
shall we
treat

^h See Mr. Sheridan's speech on the first day of the session, 1794. Parliamentary Debates.

ⁱ See marquis of Lansdown's speech, on his motion for peace.

^k War 1689.

^l War 1702.

^m War 1739.

destined for the same place. Many who admitted the justness of the judgment, deprecated the severity of the treatment; but a stronger ground was taken in parliament: it was maintained, that the sentence was not legal, and that the criminal jurisprudence of Scotland required a revision, which should render it more definite and precise, and put it on the same footing with the penal law of England. Motions to these intents were brought forward by Mr. Adam, a counsellor of great eminence, deeply conversant both in Scottish and English law, with moral and political science, which could appreciate their separate and comparative merits. With this view, he proposed to bring forward two bills; the one of which should grant an appeal to the lords of parliament from the judgment of the courts of justiciary and circuit in Scotland, in matters of law: the other should assimilate the criminal law of England and Scotland, that crimes and misdemeanours affecting the state should be on the same footing in both countries; that a grand jury should be held in Scotland in the same cases as in England; and that the power of the lord advocate should be the same as the power of the attorney general. These objects Mr. Adam had in view before, and in the preceding session had announced his intention of proposing alterations which should assimilate the criminal law of the two countries. But the recent trials in Scotland, in his apprehension, had rendered the discussion of the subject more urgently necessary; and made it advisable to change the intended form of the propositions so as to include a declaratory and retrospective, as well as an enacting and prospective operation. His first proposition was introduced to the house of commons on the 4th of February. Its purpose was, to establish an appeal from the court of justiciary to the lords, and to have a clause inserted which should subject the sentences of 1793 to the projected revisal. Having stated historically and juridically the facts and tendencies respecting the law as it now stood, and its administration; he observed, that there was not only a strong analogy between the criminal codes of England and of Scotland in the great purposes of all penal laws, but a striking resemblance also in their respective course of proceedings. Their mode of trial by jury was

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Questions
respecting
the trials
for sedition
in Scotland.

Mr.
Adam's
proposed
amend-
ment of
the Scot-
tish crimi-
nal law.

HISTORY OF THE

the same; every thing was the same except one circumstance; a right in the house of lords to revise the sentences of the court of justiciary and the circuit courts. With regard to the inconvenience that might accrue by bringing cases of criminal law from Scotland to a tribunal that did not understand the system of Scottish criminal law, this was an objection that applied much less to penal than civil cases, subjected by the union to the appeal which he now proposed.^q Criminal laws had, in all countries, a considerable likeness, because there was in all countries an abhorrence of crimes; whereas civil laws greatly differed under different circumstances, objects, and pursuits of the several societies. Mr. Adam moved for leave to bring in a bill to give an appeal to the lords in parliament from judgments and sentences of the court of justiciary and circuit courts in Scotland, in matters of law, and that this be referred to a committee of the whole house. The motion was opposed on the following ground: it was a total change in the law, as it had existed both since and before the union. No appeal had ever lain from the justiciary court either to the parliament of Scotland or the parliament of Great Britain; there was no reason for the proposed innovation, as no evil had been felt under the established mode. The greater number of the inhabitants of Scotland were perfectly satisfied with the administration of law as it now stood. They were persuaded of its excellence, and sensible of the blessings which they enjoyed under its protection. It was impolitic and hazardous to change a system experienced to be beneficial for a system untried, and consequently of doubtful operation in that country, and not sought by the people for whose benefit it was intended.^r After a great display of legal and political ability by the mover, his supporters,^s and his opponents,^t the motion was negatived by a majority of a hundred and twenty-six to thirty-one. Defeated on the question of appeal, Mr.

^q Speech of Mr. Adam, introductory to his motion. *Parliamentary Debates*, 4th February, 1794.

^r These arguments are to be found principally in the speech of Mr. Anstruther. See *Parliamentary Debates*, February 4th, 1794.

^s Chiefly messrs. Adair and Fox.

^t Messrs. Anstruther, Watson, and the lord advocate. See *Parliamentary Debates*.

Adam proposed an inquiry which he had intended to have made a part of the same bill. He moved for a copy of the record of the trials of messrs. Muir and Palmer, on the 24th of February; and on the 10th of March proposed the revision of the sentence passed upon these two gentlemen. He undertook to prove, first, that the crimes charged against messrs. Muir and Palmer were what the law of Scotland calls *leasing making*, or public libel; that, by the law of Scotland, the punishment annexed to leasing making was fine, imprisonment, or banishment, but not transportation: that the acts proved against these gentlemen did not amount to leasing making, the crime charged in the indictment. If the mover made good these positions, the obvious inference was, that the Scottish judges had, in the late sentences, greatly exceeded their power; and if they did so, the illegality would be, in imposing such a punishment, extremely tyrannical. The mover supported his legal positions by very extensive knowledge, juridical and historical, reciprocally illustrating and enforcing each other; he endeavoured from statute, analogy, and precedent, explained by their civil and political reasons, to establish his doctrines; and attempted to prove that the acts, cases, and decisions which he quoted, were not detached or insulated, but all resulted from the same spirit and principles, operating most effectually at the best times, under the most admired authorities and purest administrations of justice. He also contended, that transportation to places beyond seas neither was nor could be a part of the Scottish law before the union, because there were no places beyond seas in the possession of Scotland; and no act had since the union, been passed, allowing Scottish courts to transport in cases of sedition. On these grounds he denied the right of the Scottish judges to inflict such a punishment if the crime had been established; and farther, asserted that the charge was not proved. Having thus endeavoured to show that criminal justice had been perverted, he forcibly and eloquently stated the evils, moral and political, which must arise from such perversion; and concluded with moving the production of the records.

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Proposed
inquiry in-
to the con-
duct of the
Scottish
judges:
his speech
on that
subject.

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the lord
advocate.The mo-
tion is ne-
gated.Third pro-
position
of Mr.
Adam.Masterly
speech of
Mr. Adam
on that
subject.

THE lord advocate, chief law officer of the crown in Scotland, had officially acted as the leading public accuser against those persons; and now vindicated the judgments in question as legal and meritorious. He endeavoured to prove, that though banishment, by the English law, might not be the same with transportation, they were regarded as synonymous by the Scottish law: this (he said) was their acceptance uniformly in the opinion of criminal courts and lawyers; and he quoted cases to illustrate his doctrine. Such construction, he argued, was perfectly conformable to the practice of the Scottish judiciary courts, and the Scottish privy council; and he particularly stated instances that had occurred in the reign of Charles II. to justify his exposition. After endeavouring to prove that such was the law, he vindicated its recent exercise. The persons in question had been extremely active in sedition, and deserved exemplary punishment. The chief speakers on both sides took a very active share in this debate, which produced a display of legal and political ability that has been rarely exceeded in parliament: the motion was negatived by a great majority. Notwithstanding these repeated disappointments, the manly spirit of Mr. Adam proceeded in the course which he conceived to be right. On the 25th of March he introduced a third motion for regulating the judiciary courts of Scotland: the general object of his proposition was the assimilation of the Scottish to the English criminal law, in its substance, sanctions, rules, and forms of administration. The discussion of this subject necessarily introduced a repetition of certain arguments which had been already used; but also intermingled new matter. The mover endeavoured to prove, by accurate enumeration, the general incompetence of the Scottish criminal system to answer the purposes of substantial justice; he kept his present proposition distinct from the special subjects and inquiries which, at his motion, the house had lately been discussing; and considered

a Messrs. Sheridan and Fox on the one hand, and Mr. Pitt on the other, exerted themselves in respectively supporting messrs. Adam and Dundas. Mr. Dundas's exhibition on this subject was universally allowed to be able, and worthy of the high office which he filled. Mr. Adam's speech was, by all parties, deemed one of the first that had ever been delivered upon a subject of law within that house, and made a very great addition to a character fast rising in eminence.

the present as a general question, which derived its reasons and importance from the general system of Scottish penal law and its administration. Mr. secretary Dundas denied the necessity or policy of a change in a system with which the people subject to it were thoroughly contented; instituted a comparison between the Scottish and English law, and endeavoured to prove, that in many cases the Scottish penal code was much superior. Respecting sedition, when he saw the attacks that were daily made on the very vitals of the constitution; when he observed this systematically done; when he found that works in their nature hostile to the government of the country, and addressed to the lower orders of society, were spread with indefatigable industry, he must avow his conviction that the punishment annexed to this crime by the law of England was not sufficiently severe to deter persons from this practice, and that the legislature must adopt a different mode of procedure upon that subject.^x The lord advocate, with more minute specification, defended the law of Scotland and its administration. The attorney general, with his usual acuteness and moderation, defended the criminal justice of Scotland, as adapted to the general purposes of penal codes; the sentiments, character, pursuits, and habits of the people; and as firmly fixed by the articles of the union; but he delivered no opinion on the competency of the English penal code, as it then stood, to restrain sedition. The seemingly incidental observations of Mr. Dundas respecting the inadequacy of the English laws, did not escape the penetration of Mr. Fox. He appeared to consider it not merely as an illustrative remark on the subject before the house, but as an indirect intimation of an agitated change, and intended to sound the opinion and feelings of the commons: he warned him to beware how he meddled with the liberties of Englishmen, and to consider well before he increased punishment. This third motion of Mr. Adam experienced a similar fate with the two former; and was negatived by a very great majority. Petitions from messrs. Muir and Palmer were laid before the house, praying the reconside-

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Answer of
Mr. secretary Dun-
das.

Reply of
Mr. Fox.

The pro-
position is
negatived.

^x See Parliamentary Debates, March 25th, 1794

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ration of the sentences; but the commons refused to interpose in a judgment which had been regularly pronounced by a competent court. Those important subjects which Mr. Adam submitted to the discussion of the house of commons, were also introduced before the lords by the earl of Lauderdale. His lordship's motion was negatived without a division; and the lord chancellor proposed a resolution, declaring, "there was no ground for interfering in the established courts of criminal justice as administered under the constitution, and by which the rights, liberties, and properties, of all ranks of subjects were protected." Thus finished the parliamentary consideration of subjects which warmly interested the public mind. Messrs. Muir, Palmer, and also the condemned members of the Scottish convention, were sent to Botany Bay. Many out of parliament, who usually coincided with administration, reckoned this punishment extremely severe. Though unable to follow Mr. Adam through the researches of legal disquisition, or the depths of legal science, yet, conceiving the convicts in question to be rather misled by enthusiasm than prompted by malignant intentions, they thought that the punishment far exceeded the moral guilt. Others, who deemed severe punishment necessary, argued, that whatever the intention might be, the tendency was so pernicious as to require the most rigorous chastisement which the law permitted, for the future prevention of so dangerous incendiaries; but this last reasoning proceeding on a supposition that the law did permit such sentences, could make no impression on those who denied the premises.

Progress
of the in-
novating
spirit
among the
lower
ranks.

THE punishment of these agitators in Scotland did not deter innovating projectors in England from advancing with their schemes. During the preceding year clubs had met, both in full assemblies and detached committees, to project plans and devise expedients for effecting the manifold and radical changes which the British constitution required to suit the ideas which these persons had formed of the perfection of political systems. Of the three societies which we have already recorded to have congratulated the French convention on the downfall of monarchy, the revolution club appears to have ceased its

Proceed-
ings of the
democratical
societies.

collective existence; most of its members being probably joined to the other fraternities. The other two, the constitutional and corresponding societies, very sedulously made certain results of their deliberations known to the world by advertisements, subscribed with the names, and sanctioned by the authority of Mr. Daniel Adams,^y under clerk, and Mr. Thomas Hardy, shoemaker, respectively, secretaries to the constitutional and corresponding society. These were seconded by handbills and pamphlets, summoning the people to associate for the attainment of radical reform. In the course of their preparations they had called several meetings; especially one at Chalk Farm, near Hampstead. There several intemperate speeches were made; and when festivity intermingled with politics, very inflammatory toasts were proposed, and the meeting was undoubtedly seditious. Some of its most active members, not only at that time, but in their habitual conduct, manifested themselves inimical to the British constitution, as far as their enmity could operate; hostile to kingly government of all kinds, and desirous of establishing a jacobinical democracy. Among these, one of the most noted was John Thelwal, destined to the same kind of perpetual remembrance which has followed John Ball, Wat Tyler, Jack Cade, and Kett, the tanner, those celebrated votaries of radical reform in their days. This John Thelwal, besides his joint efforts with others of the corresponding societies, was singly and separately instrumental to the purposes of sedition by a kind of periodical declamations, which he styled *political lectures*. These lectures were chiefly comments on Tom Paine's works and similar performances, with abuse of the present constitution and government, more direct and pointed to its specific measures than even the efforts of Paine him-

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Meeting
at Chalk
Farm.

Lectures
of John
Thelwal
against the
British
constitution
and
kingly gov-
ernment.

^y This Mr. Daniel Adams I have seen before he betook himself to his legislative occupations. He then appeared to be a commonplace, harmless, vain man, desirous of what, in colloquial language, is called *dashing*. His chief subject of conversation was the high company which he kept, and his own importance in the said company. I have no doubt that the man was actuated by the same love of distinction in his reforming projects, and that no inconsiderable motive to his undertaking the office of secretary was to read his own name at the bottom of the advertisements. Indeed, as I have already said, after considerable inquiry and reflection, I think no one passion produced more votaries of change than vanity. But whatever might be the spring that set such an engine in motion, the dangerous operation was the same when it was actually moved.

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Leaders
arrested,
and their
papers
seized.

Plan of a
national
convention
discovered
by minis-
ters.

self. With the most scurrilous invectives against establishments, which he called usurpation, his harangues mingled vehement exhortations^a to revolution, or as he phrased it, to resume the rights of nature.^a Government observed the open proceedings of these societies and individuals, and suspected the secret machinations of the ringleaders: to discover the truth they adopted the policy which is necessary in apprehended plots;^b and employed despicable instruments that are easily to be found in all great cities, as spies that were to attend the conventicles of sedition, and to become members of the societies, in order to betray the secrets with which they might be intrusted. In consequence of discoveries which were obtained through these and other channels, ministers ordered Hardy and Adams to be arrested, and their papers to be seized; and immediately after Thelwel, Loveit, a hair dresser, Martin, an attorney, and two or three others, to be apprehended. In a few days the arrestations extended to men of higher rank and reputation: Mr. Joyce, a respectable clergyman, chaplain to lord Stanhope; Mr. Kydd, a barrister of talents and fast rising character; the eminent and celebrated Mr. Horne Tooke, were among the numbers of the confined. The papers being examined, it was found that the two societies had concerted a project for assembling, by their joint influence, a national convention. This design, in combination with the many other proceedings of the societies, was construed by ministers to be a conspiracy against the constitution; and consequently (they inferred), a conspiracy against the king, amounting to high treason. His majesty sent messages to both houses, announcing the discoveries which had been made, and referring to their consideration the voluminous papers that had been seized. The ministers proposed a secret committee for the inspec-

^a See Thelwel's Tribune, passim. ^b See Rights of Nature, in opposition to the usurpation of establishment, by the same, passim.

^b The anti-ministerial writings of the times severely inveighed against government for employing wretches so very destitute of honour, and thence inferred to be so unworthy of belief. But the best and wisest statesman, in investigating secret and associated villany, must often make use of worthless instruments. As well might Cicero be blamed for employing the prostitute Fulvia in eliciting information respecting a conspiracy which he deemed dangerous to Rome, as ministers for employing such fellows as Goslin, Lynham, Taylor, and Groves, to elicit information concerning a conspiracy which they conceived dangerous to Britain.

tion of these documents. Mr. Fox reprobated the projected secrecy as unconstitutional and unnecessary, tending to promote that system of misery and delusion with which he had often charged the measures of administration. Whatever (he said) the criminality is, drag it openly to light: besides, by a resolution of the house, the seizure of papers has been declared to be illegal, unless treason be charged in the warrant, which authorizes such seizure. Ministers replied, that treason was charged in the warrant; that the seizure, therefore, was not illegal; that not only prudent policy directed, but the most imperious necessity dictated, secrecy in their inquisitorial proceedings, as the very existence of parliament and the constitution was at stake. On the 12th of March, at the instance of ministers, secret committees were nominated; and on the 16th, the first report being read to the commons, Mr. Pitt stated at great length his view of its contents. He traced the history and proceedings of the societies for the last two years: they had adopted, he said, the monstrous doctrines of the Rights of Man, which seduced the weak and ignorant to overturn government, law, property, security and whatever was valuable; which had destroyed whatever was valuable in France, and endangered the safety, if not the existence, of every nation in Europe. The object of all these societies was the practical inculcation of such doctrines. A correspondence prior to the enormities of France had subsisted between these societies and the French jacobin clubs. When the jacobin faction, which usurped the government, had commenced hostilities against Great Britain, these societies as far as they could, had pursued the same conduct, expressed the same attachment to their cause, adopted their appellations, and formed the design of disseminating the same principles. Their operations were chiefly directed to manufacturing towns. They considered the convention at Edinburgh as the representatives of the people, asserted the innocence of those members who fell under the sentence of the law, and declared they could only look for reform in such a convention. But the chief attention of the house was required in considering a society, though composed of the meanest and most despicable of the people, who acted upon the worst jacobin

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Committees of both houses appointed to examine the paper. Report of the committees. Mr. Pitt states his view of the substance.

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principles, and had within it the means of the most unbounded extension and rapid increase. This society, comprehending thirty divisions in London, was connected by a systematic correspondence with other societies scattered through the manufacturing towns. It had arrived at such a pitch of audacity as to declare its competence to watch over the progress of legislation; to investigate its principles; to prescribe limits for its actions, beyond which if it presumed to advance, an end was to be put to the existence of parliament itself. Recently this corresponding society had laid before the constitutional society a plan for assembling a convention for all England. The evident object of the proposed meeting, in Mr. Pitt's opinion, was to exercise legislative and judicial capacities, to overturn the established system of government, and wrest from the parliament the power which the constitution has lodged in their hands. This plan was to be speedily carried into execution, and a central spot^c was chosen to facilitate the meeting of their delegates. An assembly had been held on the 14th of April, and resolutions were passed which arraigned every branch of the government; threatened the sovereign, insulted the house of peers, and accused the commons of insufficiency. Declarations were uttered, that if certain measures were pursued, whether with or without the consent of parliament, they should be rescinded; and that the constitution was utterly destroyed.^d The proofs of these allegations were their own records; and it farther appeared from the report, that arms had been actually procured and distributed by the societies; and that, so far from breaking up this jacobin army, they had shown themselves immoveably bent on their pursuit, and displayed preparations of defiance and resistance to government. From all these facts Mr. Pitt inferred, there was a very dangerous conspiracy, which it became them, by seasonable interference, to prevent from being carried into execution.^e In times of apprehended rebellion it had been usual to enact a temporary suspension of the habeas corpus law: that act had been suspended when the

^c Sheffield. ^d Report of the secret committee of the house of commons concerning the seditious societies. ^e Parliamentary Debates, May 16th, 1794.

constitution and liberty of the country were most guarded and respected; and such a suspension was more particularly called for at this crisis, when attempts were made to disseminate principles dangerous to that constitution for the preservation of which the law had been made: Mr. Pitt, therefore, proposed a bill, "empowering his majesty to secure and detain all persons suspected of designs against his crown and government." Mr. Fox expressed his astonishment that the committee should solemnly call the attention of the house to facts so long notorious: the persons in question had for two years openly and publicly avowed the acts now asserted to amount to a treasonable plot. If this was a conspiracy, it was the most garrulous conspiracy that was ever recorded in history. Plots for overturning government had been published for two years in the daily newspapers; the real transactions reported by the committee were chiefly repetitions of stale advertisements. What was the real amount, taken apart from the comments of Mr. Pitt's eloquence? Societies had been constituted for the purposes of parliamentary reform; these had corresponded together; and they had corresponded with France when at peace with this country. To effect the purposes of parliamentary reform, a convention had been held in Edinburgh: all these facts were notorious and stale; a convention was proposed for the purposes of reform in England; and this was *the only new information*. The project was in itself contemptible and ridiculous, and could not really alarm the minister, or any man in his senses. The remainder was not statement of facts, but inferences either of the committee or minister; containing an imputation of intention to overturn government, without the slightest evidence that such intentions existed. No grounds were adduced that could possibly justify such a momentous intrenchment on the liberties of the subject as this bill proposed. The minister, Mr. Fox believed, was not really alarmed,^f but it was necessary for his views to keep up or create some new cause of panic, to gain a continuation of power over the people.^g Why had not the

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Mr. Pitt proposes a bill for detaining suspected persons without allowing them the benefit of the habeas corpus. Mr. Fox's view of the alleged conspiracy.

^f Parliamentary Debates, 16th May, 1794.
^g This opinion was still more
brilliantly asserted by Mr. Sheridan.

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The bill is
passed into
a law.

Ministers,
including
the chan-
cellor,
deem the
crimes
charged to
be high
treason.
Lord Thur-
low asserts,
that by the
law of Eng-
land they
are not
treason.

The accu-
sed present
to the
Tower.

Supplies.

law officers of the crown prosecuted the authors of the writings or acts reported to the house, if they were so very mischievous? The bill underwent a very interesting discussion in both houses: its other supporters agreeing with Mr. Pitt, contended that the facts brought to light evinced the existence of a most dangerous conspiracy, requiring the proposed suspension in order farther to discover its extent, and to prevent its wider diffusion. The other opposers agreed with Mr. Fox that no conspiracy or project of rebellion existed, and that the bill was an unnecessary and destructive infringement of British liberty; but the design of Mr. Pitt prevailed, and the proposition of ministers was passed into a law. By persons who admitted criminality in the facts charged, different opinions were entertained concerning the degree of guilt which, if proved, they would constitute. The lord chancellor Loughborough, and several other eminent lawyers, conceived that the allegations, if established, would amount to a conspiracy against the king and government, and must be considered as intending or compassing the king's death. No less eminent lawyers, and at their head lord Thurlow, declared, that though proved, they would not amount to high treason; that the interpretation by which they should be denominated high treason, was totally inconsistent with the letter of our statutes, which precisely and accurately defined that crime; and with the spirit of our laws, which rejected circuitous construction. These thought that the allegations amounted to sedition, and that the persons who should be proved actively guilty would well deserve the punishment annexed to sedition by the laws of England. Government having adopted the chancellor's opinion, and resolved to prosecute the persons arrested for high treason, sent them to the Tower, there to be confined until evidence should be prepared for their trials.

THESE were the principal discussions and measures concerning subjects of internal tranquillity, whether retrospective or prospective, that engaged parliament during the present session. The other objects which chiefly occupied its deliberations were warlike preparations both for defence and attack: the investigation of belligerent measures and events, and schemes of finance.

AN expedition having been projected to reanimate and assist the insurgents of La Vendee, a body of Hessian troops was hired as part of the force destined for that service: they reached the coast of the Isle of Wight, and, to prevent sickness, were disembarked until preparations should be ready. No objection was made to the employment or destination of those troops; nor was the propriety or necessity of landing them called in question; but it was maintained in parliament, that whenever the introduction of foreign troops became necessary, ministers ought either to obtain the previous consent of parliament, or resort to a bill of indemnity. Without discussing the general question of prerogative, so as to form any precedent for future times, it was determined that the specific exigency justified the measure in the present case.

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Debate on
the intro-
duction of
Hessian
troops.

AMONG the military supplies proposed for the service of the current year, was a corps of emigrant volunteers. Mr. Pitt introduced a bill for that purpose, to enable the emigrant subjects of France to enlist in his majesty's service on the continent of Europe, and to receive native officers. Such a corps must be (it was said by its supporters) of wonderful efficacy, especially if sent to assist the royalists of La Vendee. The great body of the French was inimical to the terrible system, and wanted nothing but the prospect of steady and effectual aid to animate and invigorate them against the convention. The present usurpation of France was incompatible with the existence of other governments; and till we could overthrow their system of politics, we must not hope for peace or security.^h In this endeavour he thought it right to unite with us persons who had the same reasons with ourselves, and who called upon the British nation to give them arms. As the present proposition, combined with the reasoning by which it was supported, appeared to approach nearer to interference in the internal affairs of France than ministers had before professed to intend, it was very warmly promoted by Mr. Burke, who seemed at last to conceive hopes that Britain would resolve, and explicitly avow its resolution of carrying on war *for the*

Bill for the
employ-
ment of
emigrants.

^h See Mr. Dundas's speech on the bill for employing emigrants, when before the committee.

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restoration of monarchy. Mr. Dundas, indeed, had not stated the restitution of kingly government as synonymous with the overthrow of the existing usurpation. Mr. Burke, however, conceived that the terrible system did not spring from the individual character of Robespierre, but from the revolution which overturned the established orders, enabled and stimulated Robespierre's ambition to operate. The emigrant corps, he hoped, assisting the La Vendéans, if powerfully and comprehensively supported by this country, would pave the way for a counter revolution. Messrs. Fox and Sheridan, with some others, opposed the bill: they alleged that it tended to render the war more ferocious, which must always be the consequence of arming citizen against citizen; raised a force that was totally inefficacious, and that would certainly be overpowered; employed the votaries of the old government against the new government; and thus, contrary to the professions of ministers, really interfered in the internal affairs of France. They farther represented the measure as inconsistent with humanity towards the emigrants themselves. The French government had declared that no quarter should be given to Frenchmen caught in arms against the republic. In its immediate operation it must encourage the most cruel retaliation and ferocious vengeance; in its ultimate result, from the immense force of the present government, it would expose the emigrants to the most dreadful butchery. On these grounds they opposed the bill; but their objections were overruled: it passed through both houses with very great majorities, and was enacted into a law.

Apprehensions of an invasion.

Voluntary contributions for raising troops.

In the course of the session a message from the king announced the avowed intentions of the enemy to invade this kingdom. A great augmentation of the militia, and an addition of volunteer fencible corps were accordingly voted: a letter from the secretary of state to the lord lieutenants of counties, solicited voluntary subscriptions to levy troops. The solicitation was represented, by members of opposition, as an attempt to raise money without consent of parliament. It was contended by ministers, that voluntary contributions of the subject for the purpose of assisting levies, when they received the sanction of

parliament were perfectly legal, and consonant to precedent and practice; and quoted the contributions and levies during the rebellion of 1745; in the beginning of the seven years war; and in the American war, after the capture of Burgoyne. The supplies for the present year were very great and expensive: eighty-five thousand seamen, and a hundred and seventy-five thousand landmen were voted. Besides the usual ways and means, there was a loan of eleven millions: new taxes on British and foreign spirits, bricks and tiles, slate, crown and plate glass, met with little opposition: duties on paper and on attorneys were represented as oppressive, but on the whole it was allowed, that the imposts of Mr. Pitt, affecting the rich or middling classes, displayed financial ability and discrimination. Various subsidies were voted to foreign princes, and justified on the ground of contributing to the great purposes of the war. But the most important of these was the subsidy to the king of Prussia. On the 30th of April his majesty sent to the house of commons a copy of a treaty concluded by him with the states general and the king of Prussia, for the purpose of more effectually carrying on the war. By the stipulations with Frederic William, Britain had agreed to pay him 50,000*l.* a month; 100,000*l.* a month for forage; in all, for the remaining nine months of the present year, thirteen hundred and fifty thousand pounds: the whole year would amount to 1,800,000*l.*, out of which the states general were to pay 400,000*l.* Embarked (said Mr. Pitt) as we were in war so just and necessary, it was material for us to possess the aid of so powerful a force. The king of Prussia was certainly a principal in the war, but unable to carry it on without pecuniary assistance; and his force, for which we were engaged to pay, was to be employed for our advantage, and the conquests to be made in the name of the maritime states. The astonishing exertions of France rendered efforts on our part additionally necessary; and the object of the war being so important, it would be the most preposterous folly to slacken our exertions in order to spare expense.ⁱ Opposition reprobated this policy as

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Supplies
and taxes.

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to foreign
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to the king
of Prussia.

ⁱ Parliamentary Debates, 29th April, 1794.

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the height of profusion, and contended, first, that from the efforts of the king of Prussia, no benefit could accrue to this country which would compensate the cost; secondly, that we had no security that when the money was contributed he would perform the engagements which he incurred. The king of Prussia had originally begun the war: this very beginning of his, whether through the French aggression or his own, had ultimately involved us in the contest. Now, the king of Prussia having engaged other powers in the quarrel, desired to withdraw himself, and must be bribed to persevere in a war, which, but for himself, would have never been begun.^k His conduct contained such a mixture of perfidy, fraud, and meanness, as was unparalleled in all modern political history. No man of the least prudence could repose any confidence in one by whom he had been deceived, yet were the people of this country to pay to such a person one million three hundred and fifty thousand pounds, the return for which was to depend upon his own honour: let us not trust a prince whose good faith we had so much reason to doubt. But if the king of Prussia was to be considered merely as a hirer of troops, why were the soldiers which we paid to be commanded by himself? The direction of mercenaries should belong to the power which purchased their service. These arguments produced little effect: a great majority of the house conceiving the proposed subsidy to the king of Prussia to be conducive to the purposes of the war, the advantage and honour of this country, agreed to the motion which was proposed by ministers.

Bill to prevent sums vested in the British funds by French subjects, from being seized by the French rulers.

WHILE the British government adopted such measures as it thought most likely to strengthen our means of carrying on the war, it also endeavoured to impair the resources of the enemy. As the public funds of Britain afforded the most unquestionable security to the proprietors of money: there very large sums belonging to French subjects were vested. Agreeably to their general principles of converting private property to the use of the revolutionary government, the French rulers had turned their attention to this subject. They had formed

^k Parliamentary Debates, 29th April, 1794.

a resolution, directing the use of every possible expedient to ascertain the property of French subjects in foreign funds, in order that it might be delivered up to the state and become public property; and that when the transfer was made, it should be paid for in assignats estimated at par. Mr. Pitt discerned the object of this scheme, and proposed means to prevent its operation. The purpose, he saw, was, to supply the resources for carrying on the war by plundering individuals of their property deposited in foreign countries, as they had before grasped the property in their own country. A general principle of our laws (he observed) was, that the payment of any debt owing to an alien enemy may be suspended during the war; and the king, if he thought fit, might attach it as belonging to an alien enemy: to continue, however, the benefits of mercantile intercourse, which were for the advantage of individuals, without trenching on public safety, the milder practice of modern times long suffered the rigour of this law to relax. In the present case Mr. Pitt proposed to secure the individuals by withholding their property from the grasp of the revolutionary rulers; and thus, whilst private advantage was promoted, resources sought by the enemy would be arrested. For this purpose he proposed a bill to prevent the application to the use of the present government of France, of all moneys and effects in the hands of his majesty's subjects, the property of individuals of that country; and for preserving such money and effects to the use of its owners. The bill with very little opposition, passing into a law, answered the double purpose of securing their property to individuals, and detaining from the enemy means of carrying on the war.

REPEATED motions made in both houses for the restoration of peace, necessarily reiterated the arguments which were before adduced; and indeed, the purposes of the propositions on that subject appear to have been chiefly to procure from ministers some declaration, or at least admission, of the specific objects for which the war was continued;¹ at least to induce them expressly to dis-

¹ See Resolutions moved by the duke of Bedford and Mr. Fox, May 30th.

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Treaty
with the
king of
Sardinia.

avow every intention of cooperation with the continental powers to dictate her internal government to France: they farther aimed at persuading the houses to disapprove the conduct of the allies, especially of Prussia. Besides these indirect attempts, a direct effort was made to expose as impolitic the principle, system, and series of our foreign treaties. Mr. Whitbread, on the 6th of March, proposed an address to his majesty, expressing the concern of the commons that the king had entered into engagements totally incompatible with the avowed purposes of the present war; that he had made a common cause with powers, whose objects, though undefined, really appeared to be the restitution of monarchy; and earnestly praying his majesty, as far as was consistent with the national faith, to extricate himself from such engagements as might impede the conclusion of a separate peace. Next to the subsidiary treaty with the king of Prussia, a treaty with the king of Sardinia, by which we engaged to continue the war till Savoy was restored, incurred the strongest and most explicit censure. Britain had stipulated a subsidy of two hundred thousand pounds a year, to assist the king of Sardinia in his efforts to defend his own dominions. Mr. Whitbread and others maintained, that the advantage which Britain could derive from such exertions was by no means adequate to the expense to be incurred; and that *the integrity of the king of Sardinia's dominions* was not, in the smallest degree, NECESSARY TO THE SECURITY OF BRITAIN; for which, according to ministers, we were engaged in the contest. Ministers endeavoured to prove that the whole system and series of treaties, subsidiary as well as others, were means necessary to promote the grand ends of the war. The address was negatived by the usual very great majority; and a similar motion on the same subject experienced in the house of lords the same fate.

Propo-
sition of an
inquiry in-
to the con-
duct and
success of
the last
campaign.

HAVING in vain endeavoured to procure the termination of the war, and the dissolution of alliances deemed by government and the majority in parliament, essentially conducive to its purposes, opposition proposed to inquire how far, in the late campaign, its objects had been attained, and what the probability of success was from per-

severance in the contest. Major Maitland, after a detailed review of the measures and events of the last campaign, and an estimate of the result, contended that the attainments of the French had been greater than their losses. They had been forced to evacuate Belgium, but they had suppressed the revolt of La Vendee, a much more important event, since all their dangers arose from internal disturbance. The strength of the allies had been declining ever since the siege of Valenciennes. The empress of Russia made protestations, but took no active share in hostilities; and the king of Prussia was manifestly meditating a secession. The military plans latterly adopted by the allies deserved severe animadversion. While their armies were united, their efforts had been crowned with success: the separation of the forces he imputed to the influence of the British cabinet, as Britain alone was to be benefited by the capture of Dunkirk. If the attempt upon that fortress by a detached force was expedient, the sole hope of success must arise from promptitude of execution, and the completeness of preparations; but neither of these attended the attack upon Dunkirk: four weeks elapsed from the taking of Valenciennes before the siege of Dunkirk was undertaken. Neither artillery nor gun boats were ready in proper time for covering the operation. To the master general of the ordnance, and to ministry, the failure of that enterprise must be attributed. The evacuation of Toulon was still more severely reprobated: why were not other troops sent to preserve the conquest of Toulon? or why, when it was found untenable, was not an evacuation at once determined upon, and the fleet brought away to save the unhappy inhabitants from the fury of those whom they had mortally offended? On these grounds major Maitland "moved a committee to inquire into the causes which led to the failure of the army under the duke of York at Dunkirk; and to inquire into the causes which led to the evacuation of Toulon under general Dundas and lord Hood." It was replied, that Dunkirk would have been to Britain a very important acquisition; that it had every probable appearance of practicability; that the attempt was therefore wise: that its failure arose from the

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Proposi-
tion of a
tax on
places and
pensions.

Argu-
ments of
Mr. Burke
against the
proposi-
tion.

enormous efforts of the French, which could not have been foreseen or expected. From the same cause proceeded the evacuation of Toulon: those who censured us for leaving that place ought to recollect, that we had there given such an effectual blow to the French navy, that ages would elapse before they would be able to recover their losses as a maritime power. On a general review of the events of the campaign, great glory was due to the British councils and arms. These arguments appearing to the majority valid, the proposed motion was negatived. About the same time a proposition was offered to the house of commons respecting sinecure places and pensions. Since a war was deemed necessary that called for all our resources, it was prudent and expedient to retrench every unnecessary expense: for this reason Mr. Harrison proposed a bill to apply certain parts of salaries and pensions to the use of the public during the continuance of the war; and also to appropriate part of the emoluments of efficient places, so that they should not amount to more than a specific sum. This motion was severely reprobated by Mr. Burke, as similar to the proceedings which had occasioned the ruin of France. It was the peculiar province of the crown to measure and distribute the portion of rewards according to the merits of its servants; and he was astonished the house should be called upon to interfere in a matter not within the scope of their ordinary functions. Mr. Sheridan attacked this doctrine as totally unconstitutional: did the crown possess the sole right of judging what rewards were to be bestowed upon the public servants? If it did, he would ask who was obliged to pay those rewards? The money belonged to the public: the commons were the servants of the people; and as the people contributed, they had a right to expect and demand that the contributions should be applied for their good. Entering into a detail upon this general principle, he gave a particular account of the emoluments enjoyed by certain individuals, which he appeared to think far surpassing their services; and that it was but fair they should contribute part of the surplus towards the public exigencies caused by a war which they warmly supported. The opposite party replied, that the pension list and sinecure

places, during the administration of Mr. Pitt, had been very greatly reduced, besides that it would be extremely unjust to subject one body of men to an exclusive tax: On these grounds Mr. Harrison's motion was rejected.

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MR. DUNDAS, as president of the board of control, presented his annual statement of the finances of India; the result of which was, that notwithstanding the late war with Tippoo, and the stagnation of commerce at home until measures were adopted for the support of mercantile credit, the affairs of the company were in a prosperous situation, and he augured great and rapid increase of their prosperity.

THE slave trade was this session again resumed by Mr. Wilberforce; whose efforts, however, for the present were limited to one branch of that traffic. He proposed to abolish that part of the trade which supplied foreign territories with slaves. The supporters of the slave trade rested their cause on the ground of its being necessary to the wellbeing of our West Indian possessions, which could not otherwise be supplied with labourers. They who were sincere in this objection to the abolition must warmly defend the present motion: for, instead of abridging that supply it tended to increase it, and to prevent us from raising the colonies of foreigners into a competition with our own. A bill for the purpose being introduced by Mr. Wilberforce, passed the commons, but was rejected by the peers.

THESE were the chief subjects which occupied the attention of the house during this very important session, which was closed by a speech from the throne on the 11th of July.

The session closed.

BEFORE the narrative proceeds to the campaign of 1794, it is necessary to take a short view of the internal affairs of France, which had a powerful influence on military transactions. We left the jacobin faction triumphant by the downfall of the Girondines; Robespierre paramount by his command over the populace; the system of terror completely established, and producing the most direful effects within the country, but the most gigantic efforts against the enemies of its revolutionary system. The government of France was now become a govern-

Internal proceedings of France.

Jacobin faction and Robespierre paramount.

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ment of blood, to be sustained by the terrors of the guillotine. This fell engine was employed to remove the obnoxious, to crush the suspected, and to destroy the unsuccessful. Misfortune, though totally blameless, was consummated on the scaffold: thence Custine, a general of great ability and enterprise, was recalled from the northern army after the surrender of Valenciennes, and instantly committed to the prison of the Abbey. He was accused before the revolutionary tribunal of having maintained a traitorous correspondence with the Prussians while he commanded on the Rhine; and of having neglected various opportunities of throwing reinforcements into Valenciennes. No evidence was adduced to prove the allegations; but proof was not necessary to sanguinary despotism: he speedily suffered death.

Situation of
the queen.

THE execution of Custine was soon followed by the trial of the unfortunate queen. This awful instance of the instability of human grandeur, after the murder of her ill fated husband, had been separated from her family in the Temple. On the first of August 1793, she was suddenly, and in the most cruel and insulting manner, removed to the Conciergerie, a prison destined for the reception of the vilest malefactors. In the midst of a nation recently so distinguished for loyalty, every effort of invention was employed in the most wanton and barbarous insults to the consort of their lately adored sovereign. In a metropolis, within a few years the centre of refinement, and devoted attention to the sex, the most brutal and savage ingenuity was exerted in oppression, insolence, and tyranny, to a poor, helpless, and forlorn woman. The cell in which she was immured was only eight feet square; her bed was a hard mattress of straw, and her food of the meanest kind; while she was never suffered to enjoy the privilege of being alone, two soldiers being appointed to watch her night and day, without the intermission of a moment.¹ Confined in this loathsome dungeon, in such circumstances of aggravated brutality, on the 15th of October, she was brought before the revolutionary tribunal. The charges adduced against her were, that she had contributed to the derangement of the national finances, by

Iniquitous
trial and
condemnation.

¹ See Otridge's Annual Register, 1793, p. 276

remitting, from time to time, considerable sums to her brother the emperor Joseph: since the revolution continued to hold a criminal correspondence with foreign powers: attempted a counter revolution, particularly by applying to the officers at Versailles in October 1789; and at the same time, through the agency of certain monopolists, had created an artificial famine. According to her accusers she was the principal agent and promoter of the flight of the royal family in June 1791: induced the king to refuse his sanction to the decrees concerning the emigrants and refractory priests: in conjunction with a scandalous faction (the Gironde), persuaded the king and the assembly to declare war against Austria, contrary to every principle of sound policy and the public welfare: war being commenced, she had conveyed intelligence to the enemy, and was the cause of the massacre of the 10th of August. To these allegations, some of which were totally indifferent, whether true or false, and the rest supported by no proof, one was added for a consummation to the rest, as physically incredible, as morally infamous: it was affirmed by these brutes, in conception as well as in conduct, that she had an incestuous commerce with her own son, a child of eight years old.^m The queen considered accusation by blood thirsty despots as synonymous with condemnation: though she disregarded such accusers, yet out of justice to herself, her origin, her family and her fame, she exerted her abilities in rebutting charges so horrid and flagitious. With the dignity of an elevated mind, attacked by the scorn and iniquity of the unworthy, she answered serenely and calmly to all their asseverations. Retaining, in this dreadful situation, that full possession of faculties which magnanimity secures to unmerited suffering, she though totally ignorant of the allegations that were to be made, demonstrated their futility, and confuted the assertions of her enemies. Respecting the charge of incest, she appealed to those who were themselves mothers for the possibility of the crime. Though her defence completely overturned the evidence for the prosecution, it was, as she well knew it would be,

^m *Oxford's Annual Register*, 1793, p. 276.

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totally unavailing: she was pronounced guilty of all the charges, and doomed to die the following day.

THE queen heard with resignation a sentence which announced her speedy release from a situation of such accumulated misery. She had one consolation to which the diabolical malignity of her murderers could not reach: she was a CHRISTIAN: she believed in a future state; and therein she looked for happiness which no revolutionary tribunal could disturb, no atheistical assassins could destroy. Before she was reconducted to her dungeon, it was four in the morning; and twelve the ensuing day was the hour fixed for her decapitation. She was not allowed a clergyman of her own choice, but provided with a constitutional priest. At half past eleven the queen was brought out of prison, and, like the lowest malefactor, was conducted in a common cart to the place of execution. Her hair was entirely cut off from the back of her head, which was covered with a small white cap; she wore a white undress; her hands were tied behind her; and she sat with her back to the horses. They who had seen her in the zenith of magnificence and splendor, could not but contrast her former with her present condition: those who had admired her exquisite beauty, could not but observe the premature depredations of sorrow on a face so fair: but if the changes impaired the gloss of her juvenile charms, they, together with their causes, to feeling spectators (and all Frenchmen were not brutes) rendered her faded countenance more interesting and impressive. She calmly conversed with her priest, exhibiting neither ostentatious indifference nor overwhelming anguish, but resigned submission. Casting her eyes to the Thuilleries, one scene of her former greatness, which called up so many tender associations and melancholy ideas, she indicated a sorrowful emotion; but repelling this last intrusion of wordly recollection, she turned to the instrument of death.

Execution. At half past twelve the guillotine severed her head from her body; which the executioner exhibited, all streaming with blood, from the four corners of the scaffold, to an inveterate and insatiable multitude. The body of the murdered queen was immediately conveyed to a grave filled with quicklime, in the churchyard called De la Made-

laine, where the remains of Lewis XVI. had been interred with the same privation of pious regard or decent ceremonial.

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Brissot and
the other
Gironde
prisoners
put to
death.

THE murder of the queen was soon followed by the death of the accused deputies. The trial of these persons was deferred from time to time, till the complete overthrow of their adherents should give security to their prosecutors. They were charged with having conspired against the unity and indivisibility of the republic, by exciting a rebellion in the departments of the south, and in Calvados. One article of the charges respecting foreign politics was, they were accused of having caused war to be declared, first against Austria, and afterwards against England and Holland. Thus arraigned, at the instance of the ruling party, they were all doomed to death: many others experienced a similar destiny, either undeservedly or illegally. The detestable and contemptible Orleans suffered the same fate which, at his instigation, had overwhelmed so many others. A decree had been passed under the present rulers for removing the Bourbon family to Marseilles; and Orleans, who had latterly assumed the silly and fantastical name of Philip Egalite, was included in its operation. From Marseilles he was brought to Paris, on a charge of having aspired at the sovereignty from the commencement of the revolution. As this was an accusation which could scarcely admit of any evidence but conjectural, it was not substantiated so far as to justify the sentence of death to which he was doomed. Orleans experienced in his own person the tyrannic cruelty of the revolutionary system which he had been so ardent to promote; and however deserving he might be of capital punishment, he, according to the most probable accounts, suffered illegally. Profligate and despicable as the character of this man had been, his sentence excited neither horror nor commiseration in any party: the last period of his life, however, appeared to indicate sentiments less disgraceful than those which had manifested themselves in the invariable tenour of his former conduct. On the 6th of November he was conveyed to the place of his execution, amidst the insults and reproaches of the populace; and met death with a magnanimity less befitting the asso-

Orleans
shares the
same fate.

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ciste and tool of Robespierre and Marat than the descendant of Henry. Two days after the ignominious catastrophe of Orleans, the lovely and accomplished madame Roland was brought to the scaffold. To the distinguished talents, varied and extensive knowledge of this celebrated lady, her domestic virtues were not inferior. Her husband, hated by Robespierre on account of his attachment to the Gironde party, was included in the proscription that followed the decree of the 3d of May: he accordingly quitted Paris, but his wife was apprehended and committed to prison. She was at length brought to trial, and the empty charge of a conspiracy was followed by a sentence of death. At the place of execution she maintained that firm undaunted spirit which had hitherto supported her; and bowing down before the statue of liberty, she exclaimed, "O liberty, how many crimes are committed in thy name."

Dreadful
state of
France un-
der Robes-
pierre.

To take away property, liberty, and life, to inflict anguish and torment; to produce to human beings physical evil, did not satiate the inventive malignity of this extraordinary tyranny. Robespierre and his band, more comprehensive and more thoroughly diabolical, ardently, studiously, and systematically sought the increase of moral depravation. Projects for disseminating misery could not, they well knew, be so completely successful as by establishing the domination of sin. Sin could never attain so extensive an empire as by the total subjugation of religion; therefore to annihilate piety, with all its external forms and assistances, was one great object of Robespierre's devices. To effect this purpose, one means was to destroy the reverence for all the institutions which are deduced from the scriptures, and tend so powerfully to cherish sentiments of religion. Of these, none had been found more effectual than the exclusive devotion of one day in the week to the social worship of God; and the appointment of certain stated periods for specific commemorations. The calendar, in all christian countries, taking its first origin from the birth of our saviour, and enumerating the years by an event the most momentous to the christian world, had regulated the divisions of the year by epochs in the history of our saviour's mission upon earth, or some other

seasons connected with scripture narratives; and had intermingled religious associations with the several progressions of the seasons. Of these, the observance of the sabbath recurring most frequently is the most extensively beneficial. The government of Robespierre projected the abolition of these institutions, and actually effected a new calendar which destroyed all reference to christian history and precepts, commenced the era from the downfall of monarchy, annihilated all terms connected with christian history and establishments, abolished the sabbath; and instead of the seventh day, enjoined by the commandment of God to be kept holy, they appointed the tenth as a period of mere civil respite, to the total exclusion of all religious exercise. Having thus renounced christianity, their new calendar partly adopted the phraseology and arrangement of pagans, denominated every space of four years an Olympiad, in imitation of the Greeks, and the extraordinary day of every fourth year an intercalary, in imitation of the Romans.^o This innovation therefore, under the government of Robespierre and his agents, tended strongly to promote that impiety which the tribunitian government was so eager to establish. Robespierre and his junto had often declared their disbelief of the christian religion, and even denied the existence of a supreme being; but they had not yet produced a formal and public renunciation of the God and saviour of the world. An act so horrible remained for the legislature of a most enlightened nation, near the close of the eighteenth century. On the 7th of November, in the frenzy of impiety, the republican bishop of Paris, and his grand vicars, entered the hall of the convention along with the constituted authorities, abjured the name of Christ, renounced the office of christian priests, their appointments as christian pastors, and their characters as christian men. Now they would own no temple but the sanctuary of the law, no divinity but liberty, no object of worship but their country, no gospel but the constitution. This abjuration was

The revolutionary bishops abjure the name of Christ,

^o They divided the year into twelve months consisting each of thirty days, and distinguished by names expressive of their usual produce, temperature or appearance; while to complete the year, five supplementary days are added, and denominated sans culotides.

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and a fu-
ture state.The
churches
are shut.Fall of
Danton.

received by the convention with the most rapturous applause. A number of allegorical deities, liberty, equality, indivisibility, and many others, were consecrated as objects of worship. To promote this system of paganism, agents were despatched to all the departments to complete the change. In many parts the abjuration of religion, through the efforts of the clergy, was very warmly received, while its various commentators added to the impiety, according to the measure of their invention. One of the most zealous votaries of impiety was the republican bishop of Moulins. Trampling on the cross and the mitre, he assumed the pike and cap of liberty, and preached the doctrine big with horror to reflecting men, but full of encouragement to diabolical natures, "that death is an eternal sleep." A common prostitute was placed on the altar of the cathedral church of Paris, to receive adoration, as a substitute for Jesus Christ. The convention combined intolerance with atheism and blasphemy, and passed a decree ordering the churches to be shut. Many of the priests who still attempted to officiate at their altars according to the rites of christianity, were thrown into dungeons. Renunciation of religion, as its abettors foresaw, promoted the most enormous crimes. The populace, who in consequence of these proceedings reckoned themselves authorized to plunder every place of worship, public and private, divided with the convention large heaps of shrines, figures, and vessels, hitherto used in the offices of religion, while commissioners from the convention aided the sacrilegious pillage. The revolutionary frenzy had not totally overwhelmed every principle and sentiment of natural and revealed religion. The decree for shutting up the churches was received with so general horror and detestation, that the government found it necessary immediately to reverse it, and again to admit religious worship. Robespierre, though most active in enmity to religion, yet eagerly desirous to preserve and increase his popularity, promoted the restoration of divine service. By the influence which he established among the populace, he was able to acquire an ascendancy over his associates. Of these, one of the ablest was Danton : this revolutionist, much superior to Robespierre in the talents and accom-

plishments which would have commanded attention in the Roman or British senate, did not equal him in the arts which conciliate an ignorant rabble. Conscious of his own powers, he intended Robespierre for a tool; and was active in overturning the Brissotines, in order to elevate himself; but at length fell like many of his revolutionary predecessors, by the instruments of his exaltation. So contrary to the interest of an able man it is to aggrandize a rabble that would level all distinctions. The Parisian populace loved and revered Robespierre, because in manners, appearance, and passions, he was one of themselves. His ruling affection was envy.^p a desire of reducing all others to the level of his own meanness. This sentiment, together with fear, the natural passion of a despot without high talents, and greatness of mind, chiefly prompted all the enormities of this monster. He both hated and feared^q the aristocracy of genius, as a superiority over himself, and the means of effecting his downfall. But his tyranny, dreadful as it was to France by its very terrors produced most gigantic efforts against its enemies.

The Parisian populace adore Robespierre. His real talents and character.

^p See Adolphus's Memoirs of Robespierre.

^q Domitian was the most timid of men; the fearlessness of Julius Cæsar, on the contrary, hastened his assassination.

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Jealousy among the allies.—The emperor tries to raise his subjects in mass—is opposed by the king of Prussia.—Plan of the campaign.—Respective force of the belligerent powers.—The emperor joins the allied armies.—Energy of the revolutionary leaders in France.—Rebellion is quelled in La Vendee.—The confederates take the field.—Siege of Landreci.—Conflicts between the allies and the republicans.—Battle of the 24th of April between the duke of York and the republicans.—Our prince and countrymen are victorious—Landreci is taken.—Testimony of the convention to the heroism of the English.—Pichegru—his new plan of warfare—well suited to the state of his army.—System of incessant attack.—Cooperating line of French armies from the German Rhine to the sea.—The French wisely avoid a close engagement with the British.—Separation of the confederates.—Jourdain advances with an army in mass.—The prince of Cobourg attempts to oppose him without the assistance of the duke of York—receives a signal defeat at Fleurus, which decides the fate of the campaign.—Pichegru in West Flanders attacks and defeats Clairfait.—Dangerous situation of the duke of York—who retires to Antwerp.—Earl Moira is ordered to Flanders with his army.—The prince of Wales offers to act under him as a volunteer—it is not deemed expedient to risk the person of the heir apparent.—His lordship lands at Ostend—finds the place surrounded by enemies—determines to force his way to the duke of York—masterly execution and success of his design.—Advances of the French.—The Austrians entirely evacuate the Netherlands.—Intrepid stand of the British at Brøda.—The duke of York and the prince of Orange are obliged to fall back—they retreat behind the Meuse.—Victories of the republicans on the Rhine.—The German troops cross the Rhine.—Address of the emperor to the German princes—is totally una-

vailing.—Faithlessness of the king of Prussia.—Opinions on the operations and events of this campaign.—Suspicions unfavourable to the prince of Cobourg—are not supported by proof.—Cobourg a man of very moderate abilities.—Victories of the republicans over the gallant Clairfait.—The republicans reduce the whole left bank of the Rhine.—The British gain some advantages.—Winter campaign in Holland.—Sickness and mortality of the British troops,—intrepid efforts of the exhausted remains.—Immense superiority of numbers obliges our reduced army to evacuate Holland—which yields to the French arms.—Campaign of 1794 peculiarly disastrous to the British army.—Strictures of military critics on the plan of operations.—Strictures of political critics on the executive councils of Britain.—Efforts of France beyond all evidence of experience or probable conjecture—the event therefore does not necessarily afford grounds of either military or political censure.—Signal successes of Britain when she fought alone—her fleets paramount in the Mediterranean—reduce Corsica, and protect Spain and Italy—in the West Indies she subdues Martinico, Guadaloupe, St. Lucie, and part of St. Domingo.—Operations of earl Howe and the channel fleet—skilful manœuvre to bring the enemy to battle—battle of the first of June—numbers, force, and courageous efforts of the enemy—unavailing against the British fleet—decisive, glorious, and momentous victory.

THERE was a great and evident want of concert among the German powers engaged in the combination against France. The duke of Brunswic was disgusted with the conduct of general Wurmser in abandoning the lines of Weissembourg without risking a battle, whence his serene highness had been compelled to raise the siege of Landau. He had written a letter to the king of Prussia, complaining of the want of concert, and extending his animadversions to the two campaigns. On the other hand the emperor, though he was far from blaming the duke of Brunswic individually, was by no means satisfied with the cooperation of the Prussian king. The truth appears to be that the jealousy which for half a century had subsist-

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Jealousy-
among the
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The emperor tries to raise his subjects in mass;

is opposed by the king of Prussia.

ed between the house of Brandenburg and Austria, and which at the commencement of the war seemed absorbed in enmity to the French revolutionists, was still alive, and strongly operating.¹ The king of Prussia considered the continental efforts of the last campaign as aggrandizing Austria, without producing any benefit to him which could indemnify his own exertions, or balance the accession to his ancient and nearest rival. He did not regard the operations on the frontiers of France as necessary to the safety of the empire and security of his own dominions, and therefore conceived himself not fighting his own battles. If it was wise at all to combine against France, the expediency of such a confederacy must have arisen from some common object, which it imported the several members of the alliance to pursue; and if it was to be pursued, vigorous measures with concert of operations only could be efficient. If the king of Prussia apprehended imminent danger from the progress of French principles, or of French power, in sound policy he ought to have made the repression of these his supreme object; and to have restrained for the present his jealousy of the house of Austria. If he did not apprehend danger from France, prudence required he should withdraw from the confederacy; honour and sincerity demanded that he should not pretend to be an ostensive member of the alliance, if he was resolved to be inactive in its service, and indifferent about its success. On the other hand, the same unity of object was the real interest of the emperor, if it was his interest at all to be member of a combination against France. The separate appropriation of fortresses could not indemnify him for his belligerent exertions, must disgust his continental ally, and ultimately contravene the advancement of their common object. In the beginning of this year the emperor, extremely anxious to oppose fresh numbers of Germans to the republican host, actively endeavoured to induce the Germanic states to arm in mass. This mode the king of Prussia declared he would never sanction, and would withdraw his troops if it were attempted. He however professed himself still an

active member of the confederacy, and ready to support every prudent and practicable project for forwarding its ends. The emperor found it necessary to acquiesce in Frederic William's objections to a levy in mass, and to appear satisfied with his professions of zeal in the cause. The subsidiary treaty with England either empowered him to make vigorous efforts, or induced him to promise such, and accordingly he was still deemed one of the chief members of the confederacy, and upon the conviction of his cooperation the projects and plans of the campaign were formed. The confederates proposed this year to press upon the frontiers of France with numerous forces on various sides, and also to cooperate with the insurgents on the coast of Brittany. In the month of February the duke of York, and with him colonel Mack, came over from the continent to London to hold a conference with the British ministers on the operations of the campaign. The emperor undertook to furnish two hundred thousand men, the king of Prussia sixty-four, including thirty-two thousand in British pay, Britain forty thousand, the rest of the allies, the Dutch, German princes, and the Emigrants fifty-two thousand, so that the whole combined force to operate on the frontiers of France should amount to three hundred and fifty-six thousand men, besides the troops intended to be employed by Britain on the coast. The French army it appears at this time amounted to seven hundred and eighty thousand men, of whom four hundred and eighty thousand composed the armies on the frontiers, and the rest were employed either in watching the late scenes of insurrection, or on the frontiers of Spain and the Alps.

On the fifth of March the duke of York arrived on the continent, to take the command of the British army; on the seventeenth he proceeded with general Clairfait to Valenciennes, where a council of war was held with the prince of Saxe Cobourg, after which the generals returned to their respective headquarters. It was determined that the emperor himself should take the field, and should be invested with the supreme command.

On the ninth of April his imperial majesty arrived at Brussels, and was inaugurated duke of Brabant. This ceremony, performed with great pomp and splendour, it

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Plan of the
campaign.

Respective
forces of
the belligerent
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The emperor joins
the allied
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was presumed would strike the imaginations and hearts of the people, and stimulate them to the most vigorous efforts, in his and their own cause. The states in a body presented his imperial majesty with the keys of the Louvain; on the gate there was the following inscription: "*Cæsar adest, tremant Galli*;" this sentence was by the courtiers construed to mean the French republicans tremble at the approach of the emperor Francis. Great numbers of children, decorated with white staves, drew the state coach solemnly along; at the principal church *Te Deum* was chaunted; verses were presented to the emperor, congratulating his inauguration, and celebrating the achievements which he was to perform. His imperial majesty proceeding to Valenciennes, was joyfully received by the allied army; and on the 16th of April he reviewed the combined forces, previously to the commencement of military operations.

Energy of
the revolu-
tionary
leaders in
France.

MEANWHILE the French government had made the most powerful and efficient dispositions for opening the campaign. Horrible as the decemviral system was, it possessed one quality so momentous in war, that without it all other qualities supported by the most abundant resources are of little efficacy; it was distinguished for extraordinary ENERGY. Every latent power was called into action, its immense resources were not only employed, but converged into a focus. The immediate object was to repel foreign invasions and interference wheresoever they threatened, and wheresoever they were seconded; to concentrate all the intellectual and physical force of France to this point; to crumble all opposition to this design and to the existing rulers who were carrying it into execution. Some embers of rebellion rekindling early in spring, troops were sent with the usual rapidity to the scene of reviving insurrection. These speedily subjugated the royalists, and punished them in the most summary and cruel manner. Rebellion was crushed by the dispersion of the Vendéans; faction was extinguished; and hostile operations against foreign powers engrossed the sole attention. General Jourdain was removed from the command of the northern army, and succeeded by general Pichegru, whose uncommon military talents proved him deserving of this confi-

Rebellion
is quelled
in La Ven-
dée.

dence. As Jourdain was permitted to retire without disgrace, and indeed, in the express words of the decree, with honour to himself, and with the gratitude of his country, his retirement was but short, and he was afterwards appointed to command the army of the Rhine.

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On the seventeenth of April the confederates advanced in eight columns to invest Landreci, a well fortified town in Hainault, on the right bank of the river Sambre. The first column, composed of Austrian and Dutch troops under prince Christian of Hesse Darmstadt, advanced upon the village of Catillon, which was forced after some resistance. The second under lieutenant general Alvintzy, forced the French intrenchments at Mazinguer, Oisy, and Nouviou, and took possession of the whole forest of Nouviou. The third column, led on by the emperor in person and the prince of Cobourg, after carrying the villages of Ribouville and Wassigny, detached forwards the advanced guards, which took possession of the heights called Grand and Petit Blocus. The fourth and fifth columns were intrusted to the duke of York; the first of these was under his own immediate direction: and the latter was commanded by sir William Erskine. The objects of these columns were the redoubts and village of Vaux, and the strong intrenchments of the French in the wood called Bois de Bouchain. The sixth, seventh, and eighth columns, under the hereditary prince of Orange, were not engaged, being only a corps of observation on the side of Cambray. The duke of York endeavoured, notwithstanding the strong position of the French army, to turn their right, and for that purpose ordered the whole column to move forwards under the cover of the high ground, leaving only sufficient cavalry to occupy their attention. The fire of the republicans was at first severe, but finding the British troops eager to press them to a close engagement, which they foresaw would terminate in their discomfiture, they thought it expedient to retreat. These successes of the British troops enabled the confederates to commence the siege. The French assembled in considerable force at the camp of Cæsar, near Cambray, which, as we have seen, they had occupied the former year. The duke of York, well

The confederates take the head. Siege of Landreci.

Conflicts between the allies and the republicans.

Battle of
the 24th
of April
between
the duke of
York and
the repub-
licans;

our prince
and coun-
trymen are
victorious.

Landreci is
taken.
Testimony
of the con-
vention to
the hero-
ism of the
English.

knowing the efficacy of the British force, on the 23d of April sent general Otto to attack the enemy's position. Otto, finding the French strong, and firmly posted, delayed the assault till the arrival of a reinforcement, when, charging them with impetuosity, he soon broke their line, and after killing twelve hundred drove the rest into Cambray, with the loss of their artillery.* Pichegru, not disheartened by these repeated disadvantages, still directed his own movements against the most formidable part of his enemies. On the 24th of April he attacked the duke of York on all sides. The consummate general of the republicans found in the British prince and his army a commander and soldiers not to be overcome even by his ability and efforts. Frederic vigorously receiving the assailants on front by grapeshot and musketry, judiciously despatched several regiments of cavalry round the right, and of infantry round the left wing of his enemy, while he himself opposed the powerful and numerous host in the front of the battle; the two detachments charging the enemy's flanks, broke their lines, and produced a most destructive carnage in both wings: such a combination of valour and skill completely defeated the French. This attempt of Pichegru was only part of a general plan of attack, extending from Treves to the sea, although he chose for himself the post of most difficulty and danger. On the right, the columns of the French attacking the enemy's army were repulsed with loss, though not nearly so great as the loss which they incurred in their conflict with the duke of York. On the left, they gained a trifling advantage by the reduction of Menin and Courtray. Other engagements took place during the siege, without any decisive event. Where the British fought, the French were uniformly repulsed; but in their other conflicts they were more successful. Their efforts, however, to relieve Landreci, were not effectual, as that fortress was captured after an investment of ten days. The French rulers acknowledged in the convention, that though not the most numerous, the most formidable opponents to Gallic valour were the English.†

* See Macfarlane's History, vol. iv. p. 469.

† See Barrere's speech in the convention, after the late victory of the duke of York.

PICHEGRU, a man of strong and comprehensive genius, regarded precedented modes of warfare no farther than they could serve his purpose, and formed a plan of attack at once new and admirably adapted to the character of the French, especially to the soldiers under his command. His system of tactics consisted in pursuing the enemy without intermission; courting opportunities of engagements; and keeping his whole force together, without dividing it for the purpose of carrying on sieges; to reduce only such as were necessary in order to secure proper positions, without seeming to be at all concerned about the reduction of such strong places as he had left behind. This system was suitable to the state of military experience among the greater part of the French soldiers, as well as to the character of the people. The troops were mostly new levied, and although nationally courageous, active, and impetuous, and then inspirited by enthusiasm, yet they were not sufficiently trained in stationary warfare to undertake any siege of difficulty. Besides, as an annalist of the present campaign observes, "The French soldier is too ardent and impatient to go through with a chain of operations that require perseverance. In the field he darts forth as an eagle, and fights like a lion. But a long and arduous siege repels and often even discourages. In order to have a military body of men perfect and invincible, it would be necessary to carry on sieges with Swiss troops, and to have French armies of observation. But while a general has only Frenchmen under his command, he ought not to let them grow restive, by remaining long in one place, but keep them always in breath, and always within view of the enemy." This system of incessant attack was extended in its operation to the several armies of the republicans, so as to render them really parts of one great host, closely connected together, as one army over a wide expanse of country. From the German Rhine to the sea, there was one co-operating line of armies. Though the victory of the duke of York, and the capture of Landreci retarded the progress

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Pichegru.
His new
plan of
warfare.

System of
incessant
attack.

u Histoire Chronologique des operations de l'Armée du Nord, et de celle du Sambre et Meuse, par le citoyen David, témoin des plupart de leurs exploits.

CHAP.
LIV.

1794.
Cooperating line of French armies from the German Rhine to the sea. The French wisely avoid a close engagement with the British. Separation of the confederates.

Jourdain advances with an army in mass.

of this grand scheme of advance and assault they did not prevent its final execution and success. The exertions and attainments of the British arms eventually promoted the accomplishment of the French projects. After the battle of the 24th of April, they cautiously abstained from close engagement with the British forces, and bent their principal efforts, both on the right and left, against the Austrians.

To this plan of partial attack the movements of the allied army were peculiarly auspicious. Soon after the siege of Landreci it was judged expedient to divide the confederates into three parts; the chief army under the immediate command of the prince of Cobourg, and having the emperor himself at its head, was posted near the Sambre; the duke of York with the British forces, was stationed at Tournay: and general Clairfait, with a third army, occupied West Flanders. Pichegru directed his own principal efforts to the left against Clairfait, and straitening the quarters of the duke of York; and in attacking British posts and detachments, without hazarding a decisive battle. Several very bloody conflicts, however, took place in this kind of warfare, but without materially impairing his highness's force, though fresh numbers were daily joining the French army. Jourdain, with the army of the Rhine, in the beginning of the campaign, had met with severe checks, but had been ultimately successful against general Beaulieu, whom he compelled to evacuate the dutchy of Luxemburg, and to fall back to Namur. Encouraged by their career of success, the French now prepared to invest Charleroi on the Sambre. The prince of Cobourg with the main army advanced to its relief; but though the undertaking was extremely important, trusted to his own troops, without calling for the aid of the duke of York from Tournay. On the 21st of June he reached Ath, and on the 24th he effected a junction with the prince of Orange and general Beaulieu, at Nivelles. The main body of the French army, under general Jourdain was posted at this time at Templeuve, Goselies, and Fleurus, for the purpose of covering the siege of Charleroi. A battle ensued: both armies fought with the most intrepid courage, but the impetuous valour of

the French succeeded. The allied army was defeated in every quarter, and forced with immense loss to retreat to Halle, thirty miles from the field of battle :^x this victory decided the fate of the campaign. Charleroi, and soon after Brussels fell into the hands of the victorious enemy. In West Flanders, Pichegru was equally successful against Clairfait. Receiving large reinforcements from Lisle, he undertook the siege of Ypres, the key of Flanders. The importance of this place induced general Clairfait to hazard the whole corps under his command for its relief. On the 13th of June he attacked the republicans ; and drove them from their first position ; but fortune soon changed. The ability, courage, and skill of Clairfait were in vain opposed to the immense host of impetuous republicans. After a series of defeats he was compelled to abandon Ypres, to retire to Ghent, while Pichegru overran West Flanders. The geographical reader by tracing the progress of the French army, and the retreat of the Austrians, and observing the position of the duke of York, will see that he was in a very dangerous situation, surrounded on all sides by the conquering multitudes of the French troops. Ever since the enemy, by the defeat of Cobourg, were so much advanced on his left, the duke's position had been very perilous ; but since the progress of Pichegru upon his right, his post was no longer tenable ; he accordingly retired with great expedition to Antwerp. The emperor despairing of success, after in vain endeavouring to raise the people of the Netherlands in mass, returned to Vienna.

CHAP.
LIV.

1794.
June 26.
Battle of
Fleurus.

Pichegru
in West
Flanders
attacks and
defeats
Clairfait.

Dangerous
situation of
the duke
of York,

who re-
tires to
Antwerp.

PART of the original plan of the campaign had been, as we have already seen, to cooperate with the insurgents of La Vendee. Britain had undertaken, with that view, to send an expedition to France, and proposed to intrust the command to the valour, ability, and conduct of earl Moira,^y who as lord Rawdon had attained so high military distinction in America. But the suppression of the insurgents, already recorded, prevented this design from

^x New Annual Register, 1794, page 343.

^y His lordship had succeeded to that title in the former year by the death of his father.

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LIV.

1794.
Earl Moira
is ordered
with his
army to
Flanders.
The prince
of Wales
offers to
act under
him as a
volunteer.

It is not
deemed
expedient
to risk the
person of
the heir
apparent.
His lord-
ship lands
at Ostend;
and finds
the place
surround-
ed by ene-
mies;

determines
to force his
way to the
duke of
York.

Masterly
execution
and suc-
cess of the
design.

being carried into execution. His lordship's army was therefore ordered to Flanders. One illustrious personage, seeking a wider field for the exercise of his vigorous genius and active mind, and wishing to learn the military art from so able a master, desired to serve as a volunteer: this was George, prince of Wales. Fitted by natural abilities and acquirements for either the cabinet or the field, the heir apparent from the delicacy of his situation, had cautiously abstained from political business. His present proposition did not, he conceived, interfere with the line of conduct which filial duty had chalked to itself. But his royal parents not deeming it expedient to risk the person of the heir apparent, the execution of his intention was not permitted. In the latter end of June earl Moira, with ten thousand men, landed at Ostend, just as the Austrians had been obliged to evacuate West Flanders. The French, in the mean time, were advancing upon Ghent in great force, and but little expectation was entertained of general Clairfait's being able to make any effectual resistance in that quarter. In the situation in which the earl of Moira found the affairs of the allies, an alternative occurred, of either defending Ostend, or proceeding to join the duke of York. To succour the confederates, and support the British army, appeared an object of more urgent importance than the precarious possession of a single town; whatever movement was to be made required despatch, lest the advance of the French armies might completely cut off the communication. A council of war was therefore called by the earl of Moira, and it was determined immediately to evacuate Ostend. This difficult and laborious task was committed to colonel Vyse. On the morning of the 1st of July he began to embark the troops on board the shipping, which lay at single anchor in the harbour, and the baggage and stores were in the vessels before night. The French entered the town as the last detachment embarked. While colonel Vyse was engaged in conducting the evacuation of Ostend, lord Moira with his main army repaired to Malle, about four miles from Bruges, on the great causeway to Ghent. The enemy pressing very fast, nothing was left but the most rapid despatch. For that purpose they marched with-

out tents and baggage. The French general was extremely eager to attack this corps; but so skilfully had their masterly leader arranged them on their march, that passing through a country overrun by myriads of enemies elated with victory, and eager for combat, encountering numberless defiles, through flats intersected with canals, and lately inundated, he did not afford them a single opportunity of attack. After undergoing incredible hardships, on the 8th of July he joined the duke of York. Having conducted this important accession of strength in safety to the prince, lord Moira returned to Britain. The French generals were now advancing in all directions through the Netherlands, and the allies were apprehensive that Holland would again become the scene of invasion. The duke of York remained at Antwerp, to afford the Dutch time to strengthen their fortifications, and prepare for a vigorous defence. The prince of Orange, in the beginning of the month, had taken post at Waterloo; and here he was at first successful in repelling an advanced guard of the French. He was soon, however, compelled to abandon this post, by the advance of the republican armies to Brussels. He attempted afterwards to make a stand along the canal of Louvain; but the French bringing up continual reinforcements, he was obliged, with considerable loss, to retreat on the 16th across the Dyle, and established, for a short time, his headquarters at Nyle. The stadtholder solicited the Dutch, by repeated proclamations, to levy one man in ten throughout the United Provinces. But a great portion of the people were disaffected, and the rest were torpid. The French generals advanced in front of the Dyle towards Louvain. At the Iron Mountain, the brave though lately unfortunate Clairfait again attempted an ineffectual resistance, but was completely defeated by general Kleber, with the loss, in killed, wounded, and prisoners, of six thousand men; while the generals Lefevre and Dubois seized on the position of the abbey of Florival. It was at first the intention of the commanders of the combined armies to make a stand at Namur, and to form a line of defence from that city to Antwerp; but these successes of the republicans, and their rapid movements, totally disconcerted this plan.

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LIV.

1794.

Advances
of the
French.

The duke
of York
and prince
of Orange
are obliged
to fall back.

CHAP.
LIV.

1794.

The Austrians entirely evacuated the Netherlands.

Intrepid stand of the British on the frontiers of Holland but they are compelled to give way to immense superiority of numbers.

They retreat behind the Meuse.

Namur was abandoned by general Beaulieu on the night of the 16th, leaving behind him only two hundred men, who surrendered both the city and citadel on the first summons: a large quantity of artillery was found at Namur. On the 20th, the keys of the city were presented at the bar of the national convention.² In West Flanders the important pass of the Lier was forced about the same time: the French on the 23d sent a trumpeter to inform the inhabitants of Antwerp that they intended to visit them on the succeeding morning, which they did at eleven o'clock, and took quiet possession of that city. The allies had previously set fire to the immense magazines of forage which were there collected. Jourdain and his troops entered Liege, which immediately submitted to the victorious republicans. The fortresses of Lisle and Sluys were speedily captured;³ the four towns taken from the French were successively retaken. The Austrians entirely evacuated the Netherlands, which were now overspread by the republican armies. The British retreated from Antwerp, and in number about twenty-five thousand men proceeded to Breda, which it was determined to defend, and a Dutch garrison was stationed there for that purpose. The right column of the English marched through Bréda on the 4th of August, while the left went round the town. They then took a position which had been previously marked out for them, about four miles distant. Having halted several days at Breda, which the prince of Orange was putting into a state of defence, they retreated in the end of August to Bois-le-duc, where a Dutch garrison of seven thousand men was posted. In the beginning of September general Pichegru approached with an army of at least eighty thousand men; and the advanced guard of the republicans attacked and stormed the posts on the Dommel, and the village of Boxtel, which though they made a most gallant resistance, found it impossible to withstand the numbers of the enemy. The duke, therefore, with so inferior a force, perceiving his situation totally untenable, on the 16th of September crossed the Meuse, and took a position which had been

² New Annual Register, 1794, page 400.

³ Ibid. 401.

previously reconnoitred about three miles from Grave. So vigorous had been the resistance of the valiant British, that with twenty-five thousand men they withstood the republicans who were more than eighty thousand, from the beginning of July to the middle of September; in which time they made very inconsiderable advances, where they had the duke of York and his band to combat.^b On the Rhine similar success attended the energetic efforts of the republicans. The king of Prussia having long manifested the coldest indifference to the confederacy, had early in this year announced to the German princes his determination to withdraw from the alliance. But Britain, judging of his good faith by her own, had conceived that he would bring into the field the forces for which he had stipulated, and for which he had been paid; in short, that a monarch would not descend to an artifice so totally unbecoming a gentleman, or an honest man, as to procure the money of other people by false pretences. But our government and legislature had proceeded on the supposition that Frederic William possessed virtues with which they found by experience he was not endued. The force which he furnished was very inferior to that which he promised, and their efforts were not such as might have been expected from a Prussian army, and were of little avail against the sincere, zealous, and ardent enthusiasm of the republican troops. On the 12th of July, general Michaud attacked the Prussians near Edickhoffen; and, to favour his operations in that quarter, advanced at the same time upon the Austrians before Spire. The contest was long and bloody, and both parties claimed the victory. On the following day the French renewed the attack on the Prussians with redoubled vigour. The battle lasted from early in the morning till nine at night. They attacked seven times, and at length carried by assault, amidst a terrible fire, the important posts fortified and occupied by the Prussians on Platoberg, the highest mountain in the whole territory of Deux Ponts.^c The republicans captured great numbers of prisoners, and nine guns, besides ammunition, wagons, and horses. Continu-

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LIV.

1794.

Faithlessness of the king of Prussia.

Victories of the republicans on the Rhine.

^b See Masfariane, vol. iv. page 489.

^c New Annual Register, 1794, p. 471.

CHAP.
LIV.

1794.

Address
of the
emperor
to the
German
princes.is totally
unavailing.Opinions
of the ope-
rations and
events of
this cam-
paign.

ing their series of attacks, the republicans successively defeated the German troops, and compelled them to seek safety by crossing the Rhine.^d The emperor, alarmed by such a multiplicity of successes, endeavoured to stimulate the German princes to join him in efficacious measures to defend the empire against the irruption of the republicans; and for that purpose he addressed a memorial to the circles. His own resources, he stated, were utterly inadequate to the contest: the progress of the French was so rapid, that he must be inevitably obliged to withdraw his troops, and station them for the defence of his own frontiers, unless the empire should think proper to oppose the progress of the French with a sufficient force: these exhortations did not produce the desired effect; and no vigorous efforts were made by the empire to second its chief. The suspicion of treachery often springs from discomfiture; and ideas of this sort were very prevalent during this ill fated campaign. Many of the Austrian officers incurred the imputation: it was said that a considerable number of these were infected with republican principles; and that not a few were corrupted with French gold. As, however it would exceed the bounds of history to repeat the various surmises of suspicion, concerning which proof was not adduced to ascertain the truth of the rumours, the narrative shall not follow their details. One result however, is, the conduct of the Austrians in many instances was so extremely inconsistent with the military ability which the officers of that nation have generally possessed in a great degree, that it implied either treachery or incapacity. The prince of Cobourg has been severely censured for the operations which terminated in the signal defeat at Fleurus, and the loss of the Netherlands. It was said, that knowing the efficacy of the British troops, he should not have left them at Tournay when he marched to encounter Jourdain: that the addition of such a force would have insured victory: that the plan of separation in which the position of the British troops originated, was very inimical to the objects of the campaign, and very unfit to oppose an enemy whose grand scheme was

an extensive and closely connected line of cooperation: that the allies had stationed themselves at three angles of a triangle, while the republicans, by a segment of a circle, at once encompassed the whole, and broke the communication of the parts. These allegations, if true, might be all accounted for without any charge of disaffection against Cobourg, and upon a supposition that will be very generally admitted, that Jourdain and Pichegru, especially the latter, far surpassed Cobourg in inventive powers which formed new combinations adapted to the case. Cobourg, indeed, appears to have been a man of mere tactical experience, without genius, and therefore not fit to cope with skilful men of very great genius. This prince, after the evacuation of the Netherlands, was dismissed from his command, not without a rumour of imputed treachery; the truth of which I have no grounds to record as an historical fact; and I myself disbelieve, as his character was fair and honourable; as there is no evidence to support such a charge, and as the disasters of the army under his command appeared to have arisen from the superior ability of the French generals, commanding a much more numerous force, inspired by the most ardent enthusiasm, which, whencesoever it arises, has always inspired men to efforts far beyond diplomatic calculation formed on the experience of common wars. The emperor certainly did not receive in the Netherlands, the assistance from his Belgian subjects, the hopes of which probably had a considerable influence in inducing him to visit these dominions. His exhortation to them to rise in mass was indeed very unlikely to be regarded, as they did not conceive that, like the French, they were fighting their own cause. Their object was naturally their own security, and not the aggrandizement of the house of Austria: they did not choose to rise in mass to fight for a master, though the French had risen in mass to fight for themselves.

AFTER evacuating the Netherlands, general Clairfait, leaving general Latour to cover Maestricht, posted himself at Juliers. Jourdain in the beginning of September prepared to march against Latour; but it was the middle of the month before he was ready for the assault. On

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1794.

Suspicious unfavourable to the prince of Cobourg,

are not supported by proof.

Cobourg a man of very moderate abilities.

Able efforts of Clairfait

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LIV.

1794.
Victories
of the re-
publicans.

the 18th the French in four columns attacked the whole line, from the Aywaille to Emeux. All the passages were forced with the bayonet, and the camps taken at full charge. The Austrians left two thousand men dead on the field of battle, and several of their battalions were reduced to one hundred and fifty men. Seven hundred prisoners, twenty-six pieces of large cannon, three pair of colours, one hundred horses, and forty ammunition waggons, were taken, as well as the general's own carriage, his secretary, and papers. The remnant of Latour's army was completely routed and dispersed: general Clairfait having endeavoured without effect to assist Latour, with great skill and ability fortified himself at Juliers; and thither the republicans directed their efforts. On the 29th the French advanced from Aix-la-Chapelle, crossed the Roer, and attacked all the Austrian general's extensive posts, from Ruremonde to Juliers and Duren. The conflict lasted the whole of the 29th and 30th of September, and was renewed on the 1st and 2d of October. The battle was extremely fierce on both sides; but Clairfait having lost ten thousand men, found it necessary to retreat as rapidly as possible. Juliers was abandoned to the French, and Clairfait retreated across the Rhine: the republicans conquered Cologne, Worms, Bonn, and in short reduced the whole left bank of the river. Pichegru, meanwhile was passing on towards Holland. He informed the national convention, that with two hundred thousand men he would subjugate the United Provinces; and though the whole force which he required was not immediately sent, yet so numerous an addition was despatched to his army, that he deemed himself able to proceed with his operations. In the beginning of October he invested Bois-le-duc, which in a few days surrendered. On the 20th of October, a sharp conflict took place between the republicans and the English, in which, though the event was not decisive, the loss was considerable. The duke of York now crossing the Waal, fell back to Nimeguen, and thither the French multitudes soon followed. The British army was posted to the left of Nimeguen, and the enemy in front of the town, where batteries were erected for the purpose of cannonade and bombardment. On the 4th of

The re-
publicans
reduce the
whole left
bank of the
Rhine.

November a sortie was made in the night. The troops employed in the sally were about three thousand British, Hanoverians, and Dutch; and their object was to destroy the batteries which were newly constructed to annoy the city. It appears that the French were by some means informed of this design, and were prepared to obstruct its execution. The conflict was extremely obstinate, but our troops were victorious, though with considerable loss. The British general, however, from the immense superiority of the enemy, found it necessary to evacuate Nimeguen, Philippine on the Scheldt also surrendered: the French army on the right was fast advancing, and after the victories over the Austrians laid siege to Maestricht. This city stood a regular investment in the beginning of October. During this month the republicans carried on their approaches, and whilst their parallels were forming, constructed their batteries. They repeatedly summoned the town to surrender; this denunciation having on the 30th been made in vain, the besiegers began to pour a most dreadful shower of shot and shells from all their works, with which they had surrounded the place. This fire, lasting during the whole of the night, demolished many public buildings and private houses, wounded and killed great numbers of the inhabitants. During three days this destructive assault continued: the governor at length, moved by the entreaties of the magistrates and people, entered into a negotiation with general Kleber, and the city capitulated on the 4th of November. After the capture of Nimeguen and Maestricht, the operations were inactive during the rest of the month. But the troops, though not engaged in battles, were exposed to the severest hardships. The winter began with extreme severity: the soldiers were in want of clothing and other necessaries for encountering a winter campaign, which had not been foreseen in time to make adequate provision. In a country so much colder and damper than Britain, that season far exceeded its usual rigour. The consequence was sickness and mortality among the soldiers, augmented by the want of remedies and medical assistance sufficient for such an unexpected prevalence of distemper. It is probable, from the inaction of the French at this time, that

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LIV.

1794.

The British gain some advantages, but are greatly outnumbered.

Winter campaign in Holland.

Sickness and mortality of the British troops.

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LIV.

1794.
Intrepid
efforts of
their
exhausted
remains.

Attempt
of the duke
of York
and prince
of Orange
to rouse
the Dutch.

they laboured under similar evils. Fresh and numerous reinforcements, however, arriving, enabled them in December to proceed with their operations. On the 7th of this month they made a fruitless attempt to cross the Waal in four rafts, from Nimeguen; two of the rafts were sunk by the English forces, who were stationed on the opposite side, near the village of Lant; one floated to the side occupied by the Dutch; and only one of the four regained that which was in possession of the republicans. On the 11th the attempt was renewed, and with better success: they crossed the river above Nimeguen, and near the canal, in boats and on rafts, to the number of about five thousand men. Another detachment, however, attempting the passage, was repulsed with considerable loss. About the middle of December the frost became extremely intense; and in a few days the Maese and the Waal were frozen over. On the 27th the army crossed the river; the duke of York had, together with the prince of Orange, endeavoured to rouse the Dutch to such energetic resistance as had formerly saved their country from French invaders; but the circumstances of the times, and the dispositions of the people, were totally changed. Great numbers of the Dutch were now unwilling to oppose the French, and most of the rest conceived opposition hopeless. The exhortations of the princes were, therefore, altogether unavailing; and the duke of York considered all efforts as useless to save a people not desirous of saving themselves. Seeing military exertions unlikely to be farther useful in that country, he returned to England. The remaining forces were now intrusted to the command of general Walmoden; and an attempt was made to force the enemy to repass the Waal. For this purpose ten battalions of British infantry, with six squadrons of light cavalry, commanded by major general Dundas, assisted by four squadrons and four battalions of Hessians, amounting in all to about six thousand five hundred infantry, and a thousand horse, advanced in three columns. At day break on the 30th of December, attacking a great body of the French at the village of Thuil, they carried it with the bayonet, and drove the republicans across the river. This success, however, was only temporary; the English army was from the dreadful effects of the climate

and season, rapidly decreasing. Private liberality was added to public expenditure in sending plentiful supplies of flannel waistcoats, and other fences against the cold; but the inclemency of the frosts was superior to every expedient: the chief part of the army was overcome with sickness. According to the reports of officers who were engaged in this dreadful service, the professional attention bestowed upon the sick was by no means adequate to the effectual discharge of that momentous duty.* In the month of January the French again crossed the Waal with seventy thousand men. This formidable host attacked the remains of the British army, and compelled them, though still making the most gallant resistance, to retire. Without tents, and unable to procure cantonments, the distressed heroes were obliged to pass the night, in this severe season, in the open tobacco sheds, or under the canopy of an inclement sky. The Dutch now urged the stadtholder to conclude a peace with the French, and finding him unwilling, their provinces and towns successively offered terms to the republicans, which were accepted. Zealand, and soon after Holland, entered into a capitulation. The stadtholder with much difficulty escaped from the Hague with his family, sought and found refuge in England: by the beginning of February the provinces had concluded a treaty with the French. As the republicans now possessed all the country between the British army and the coast of Holland, it was impossible to retreat in that direction; they, therefore, were obliged to take a much more circuitous rout towards the north coast of Germany. They repeatedly occupied strong positions, not with the vain intention of making a stand against three times their number, but to secure their retreat. Therein they had also to encounter many other difficulties. The partial thaws which occasionally took place only served to aggravate the misery of the troops, from the floods which succeeded these alterations in the temperature, and either

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1794.

Immense superiority of numbers forces the English to evacuate Holland, which yields to the French arms.

* The details on this subject, not once or twice mentioned, but very frequently repeated through the periodical works of the time, daily, weekly, monthly, and yearly, and never contradicted, charge the medical department with extreme negligence. But candour must admit, that the prevalence of distemper was much greater than was to be foreseen or expected when the medical appointments were made, and that therefore a less minute attention could be bestowed on every individual patient, than the case required.

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LIV.

1794.

impeded the progress, or obliged the soldiers to wade through torrents of mud and water, which sometimes reached even to their knapsacks. In this dreadful situation they were obliged to continue their march, or to be overwhelmed by the enemy. After a rout perhaps unequalled in the annals of military hardship, the exhausted remains of our army arrived at Bremen; and having halted for some weeks they embarked for England.

Campaign
of 1794
disastrous
to the British
army.

SUCH was the melancholy termination of the British expedition to the continent: so little did the expenses, preparations, and military equipments of two years answer the purposes for which they were undertaken. Britain had gone to war to prevent an attack upon the rights of Dutch navigation: instead of one river, the whole seven provinces were now commanded by the republicans. She had gone to war to prevent French aggrandizement: one campaign had given France an accession of territory fertile, productive and opulent, far surpassing all the conquests of her most ambitious and successful monarchs.

IN Italy and Spain the republicans were successful as far as they employed their efforts: their exertions, however, in Piedmont, were not important. On the confines of Spain they made rapid advances: the Spanish government attempted to raise the subjects in mass: but this was an expedient that could succeed only in countries where the people, either being or conceiving themselves free, were inspired by the ardour of liberty.

FROM such an issue to the efforts of the confederation, persons that did not exactly consider the specific case might very naturally draw unjust inferences. Such might conclude, that because the combination in question had been unsuccessful, that no future union for suppressing dangerous ambition could be successful, and therefore that the attempt would be vain. Were a concert to be proposed for reducing the exorbitant power of France, the events of 1794 might be quoted as warnings that the scheme would be impracticable; and assuredly the same means and conduct in similar circumstances would be unavailing. If the continental powers, pretending to join, were really to pursue different and even contrary objects; and if the French were inspired by the same spirit which, during their

republican enthusiasm, animated and invigorated their exertions, the issue would certainly be discomfiture to the nominal coalition of really discordant parts. But if they were to unite in head, heart, and hand, to pursue an object which many might think more important for their ultimate safety than paltry indemnities; and if it were to happen that they had not to contend against enthusiasm, but torpid indifference, it would by no means follow that the events of 1794 would be repeated. Even respecting Holland singly, it would be extremely hasty to deduce a general conclusion from the untoward issue of this disastrous campaign. The reduction of Holland did not arise merely from the arms of Pichegru, but in a great degree from the Dutch themselves. The majority of them were democratical, and received the French not only without opposition, but with gratitude and joy, as their deliverers and brothers. They might have withstood Pichegru when assisted by the gallant English, as without any assistance they withstood Turenne and Conde; and with much less aid they discomfited Alva and Parma. The Dutch have clearly manifested, that, if they exert themselves, no foreign power can keep their country in subjection, or even dependence. Should it ever happen that they choose to assert their independence, there is little doubt that they will be successful: whenever they have the will they have the power to be free.

SIGNAL as had been the disasters of the British armies on the continent, where she acted alone, unincumbered with allies, and on her appropriate theatre, her success was momentous, and her glory transcendent. In the choice of naval commanders, our minister, through the war, has uniformly considered instrumentality; fitness for discharging the duties, and accomplishing the purposes of the appointment. The various commands, supreme and subordinate, were conferred on professional ability and character. Three powerful armaments were prepared for the campaign of 1794: one under lord Hood, commanded the Mediterranean, reduced the Island of Corsica, and protected the coasts of Spain and Italy: a second, under sir John Jervis, with a military force headed by sir Charles Grey, reduced Martinico, Guadaloupe, St. Lucie, and

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LIV.

1794.

Signal successes of Britain where she fought alone.

Her fleet paramount in the Mediterranean. Acquisitions in the West Indies.

CHAP.
LIV.

1794.
Operations
of earl
Howe and
the chan-
nel fleet.

Skilful
manœuvre
to bring
the enemy
to battle.

Battle of
the 1st of
June

Numbers,
force, and
courageous
efforts of
the enemy;
unavailing
against the
British
fleet.

some parts of St. Domingo. But the most illustrious monument of British naval glory was raised by earl Howe. During the preceding part of the war, France, conscious of her maritime inferiority to Great Britain, had hitherto confined her exertions to cruisers and small squadrons for harassing our trade. In the month of May, the French were induced to depart from this system of naval warfare. Anxious for the safety of a convoy daily expected from America, conveying an immense supply of corn and flour, of naval stores and colonial productions, the Brest fleet, amounting to twenty-seven ships of the line, ventured to sea under the command of rear-admiral Villaret. Lord Howe expecting the same convoy, went to sea with twenty ships of the line. On the 28th May he descried the enemy to windward. Admiral Pasley in the evening gave signal to the vanmost ships to attack the enemy's rear. Lord Hugh Seymour Conway attacked the *Revolutionaire* of 120 guns, and being soon supported by captain Parker of the *Audacious*, so damaged the enemy's ship that she struck; but escaping during the night, she was towed into Rochfort. The next morning the fleets resumed the conflict, but the intermission of a thick fog prevented its continuance. The fog lasted that and the greater part of the two following days. The sun occasionally breaking through the mist, showed to each other the direction of the fleets; and lord Howe employed this time in most masterly manœuvres to obtain the weathergage, that he might compel them to fight when the atmosphere should clear, and at length he succeeded. On the 1st of June, the fog being dispersed, our admiral, from his former excellent dispositions, found an opportunity of bringing the French to battle. Between seven and eight in the morning, our fleet advanced in a close and compact line: the enemy, finding an engagement unavoidable, received our onset with their accustomed valour. A close and desperate engagement ensued, presenting the French as combatants worthy of occupying the naval herpism of England. The *Montague* of 130 guns, the French admiral's ship having adventured to encounter the *Queen Charlotte* of 100, was, in less than an hour, compelled to fly: the other ships of the same division seeing all efforts ineffectual against

British prowess, endeavoured to follow the flying admiral; ten, however, were so crippled that they could not keep pace with the rest; but many of the British ships were so damaged that some of these disabled ships of the enemy effected their escape. Six remained in the possession of the British admiral, and were brought safe into Portsmouth, viz. *La Juste* of 80 guns, *La Sans Pareille* of 80 guns, *L’America* 74, *L’Achille* 74, *L’Impetueux* 74, and *Northumberland* 74: these, with *Le Vengeur*, which was sunk, made the whole loss of the French amount to seven ships of the line. The victorious ships arrived safe in harbour with their prizes: the crews, officers, and admiral were received with those grateful thanks and high applauses which Britain never fails to bestow on her conquering heroes. Earl Howe was by all ranks and parties extolled for his tactical skill, steady perseverance and determined courage; first, in forcing the enemy, after every evasion, to a close action; and then in obtaining so signal an advantage over a fleet superior in its number of ships and of men, as well as in size and weight of metal.^f The year 1794, surpassing in disaster by land the unfortunate 1777^g or 1781,^h by sea equalled the glories of 1759.

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Decisive
glorious,
and mo-
mentous
victory.

^f See Macfarlane's History, vol. iv. p. 461 ^g Capture of Burgoyne's army.
^h Cornwallis's army.

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Internal affairs of France.—The Cordeliers.—The tenure of Robespierre's tyranny, the fear of foreign enemies.—A powerful party quickly formed against him.—Doomed to death.—Perishes on the scaffold.—His most iniquitous decrees rescinded.—Jacobin clubs entirely abolished.—Dawnings of social order begin to reappear in France.—Britain.—Trials for treason.—Edinburgh.—Watt and Downie.—Watt's conspiracy not treason by the letter of Edward III.'s statute—treason by the judicial interpretation of that statute.—Condemned and suffers death.—Alleged plot to assassinate the king—the allegation supported by no proof.—Trial of Thomas Hardy, John Horne Tooke, and John Thelwal, for high treason.—Ability of the lawyers on both sides.—Extraordinary eloquence of Mr. Erskine.—The accused are respectively acquitted.—Riots in the metropolis.—Meeting of parliament.—Mr. Pitt augurs the downfall of the present system of France from the exhaustion of her finances.—Opposition contends, that the enthusiastic energy of the French would discover new resources, and alleges France to be returning to social order.—Discussion respecting the practicability of negotiation.—Sentiments and reasons of the whigs who had separated from Mr. Fox.—Motions for an inquiry into the management of the war, and state of the nation—is negatived.—Parliamentary provisions for the approaching campaign.—Loan to the emperor.—Supplies.—Taxes.—Plan of Mr. Pitt for manning the navy.—Plan of Mr. Windham for the improvement of the militia.—Discussion of the late acquittals.—Statement of the affairs of the India company.—Marriage of the prince of Wales to the princess Caroline of Brunswic.—Provision for the establishment of their royal highnesses.—Arrangement for the payment of the prince's debts.—Application from the West India merchants.—Motion of Mr. Wilberforce for the

abolition of the slave trade.—is negatived.—Termination of Hastings's trial by an honourable acquittal.—Mr. Pitt declares his majesty's willingness to make peace, if attainable with security, without regard to the form of French government.—Irish affairs.—Lord Fitzwilliam viceroy.—Misunderstanding between ministers and him concerning the extent and bounds of his powers—he is recalled and succeeded by lord Camden.—Internal affairs of France.—The government of Robespierre the lowest abyss of revolutionary anarchy.—Commencing return of social order.—Constitution of 1795—two councils, and an executive directory of five.—French politicians now convinced, that a control of estates is necessary.—Death of the late king's son.

WHEN the victories of the French in the Netherlands removed their apprehensions from foreign enemies, their attention was turned to internal tyranny. After the jacobins had triumphed over the Girondists, they were themselves divided into two parties. A division in opposition to Robespierre was headed by Hebert, and called the faction of the Cordeliers; these men carried jacobinism to an extremity that even Robespierre himself did not approve, especially when he had made such strides to single despotism. In the frantic wildness of their civil and political doctrines, they somewhat resembled the *fifth monarchy men* of this country. They proposed, without any exception, equalisation of property, and a community in every kind of goods or desirable objects: but in point of religious doctrines they were totally different, or rather their frenzy took a quite contrary direction. The English anarchists were possessed with the madness of fanaticism, the French with the madness of atheism. Their inculcations of universal equality by no means suited Robespierre, they were arrested at his instance, accused, and put to death. Anacharsis Cloots, one of the number, preached to his fellow sufferers atheism on the scaffold, and died blaspheming his God. The associates of Robespierre next followed: fear and envy doomed Danton to the scaffold. The tenure of Robespierre's despotism was the alarms of the people: and as these decreased, his

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France.

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Tenure of
the despo-
tism of
Robes-
pierre the
fear of fo-
reign ene-
mies.

A power-
ful party
formed
against
him.

power decayed. Rapidly susceptible in all their impressions, the French people no sooner began to consider the atrocities which he had been perpetrating, than they became enraged against the tyrant: his enemies stimulated the prevailing sentiment, and suggested that he desired to establish himself as dictator. Fear, the most strongly operative of his two ruling passions, now goaded the tyrant to fresh proscriptions: he had still the armed force of Paris under his command, but he found that it was imbibing the sentiments of his adversaries. Encountering danger, his timidity palsied his usual sagacity. Billaut Varennes publicly accused him in the convention. Barrere, his artful and versatile associate, perceived that his dominion was drawing to an end, and supported the accusation. Robespierre finding so powerful a party to be formed for his destruction, endeavoured to interest the violent anarchists in his favour, and imputed the charges against him to the machinations of loyalists and English; but his efforts being destitute of firmness and courage, were totally inefficient. When he repaired to the convention, Tallien rose, and in a vehement speech, painted in the most vivid colours all the atrocities under which France had groaned and of which he regarded Robespierre as the principal author. He recapitulated the manifold details of his bloody tyranny, all the crimes he had authorized, the atrocious laws of which he had been the author, and the victims which he had sacrificed, earnestly endeavoured to make the convention blush at so disgraceful a slavery and turning towards the bust of Brutus, invoked his genius, and drawing forth a dagger from his girdle, he swore that he would plunge it into the heart of Robespierre, if the representatives of the people had not the courage to order his arrestation, and to break their chains.^k The tyrant tried to reply, but he was not suffered to be heard; the convention doomed him and his chief associates to imprisonment. Attempts were made to excite an insurrection in his behalf; but his own cowardice prevented success.^l Finding that all was lost, Robespierre shot himself with a pistol:

ⁱ Segur, 111. 116. Otridge's Annual Register, and New Annual Register, 1794. ^k Segur, vol. iii. p. 117. ^l Ibid. p. 116.

but the justice of heaven would not suffer the scaffold to be deprived of so merited a victim ; his wound rendered his punishment more lingering and tormenting. During the twenty-four hours which preceded his execution, he beheld the universal joy inspired by his downfall, and the horror which his person excited ; he heard the reproaches of his colleagues, whom he had abased, and over whom he had tyrannised ; the cries of joy of the victims whom he still wished to strike ; and the imprecations of the whole people, whom he had for such a length of time deceived and oppressed. An object of public execration, no kind remembrance to strengthen his courage, no friend by his tears to soften his torments, he was compelled to appear before that revolutionary tribunal, by which his fury had condemned his own accomplices. He was led to the scaffold, with his brother, Couthon, Saint Just, and Lebas, his colleagues, Henriot his general, and the members of the rebellious *communes*.^m An immense crowd followed him, reproached him with his crimes and his baseness, loaded him with outrages, and announced to him, by their acclamations, the judgment of posterity, which would place him in the list of the most odious and contemptible tyrants. The executioner, tearing off with violence the bandage which covered his wound, drew from him a hideous shriek, exposed him for some time to the eager looks of vengeance and hatred, and at last despatched him by a death as infamous as his life.

ROBESPIERRE attained his power neither by extraordinary abilities nor intrepid courage. All government and subordination being destroyed, the mere brutal force of the mob was paramount ; and he rose by the adaptation of his manners to the lawless rabble, and the coincidence of his disposition with the predominant savageness of infuriated passion. Terror for a time maintained the supremacy of this monster. Fearing and envying all excellence, he employed his dominion in the destruction not only of eminent and able men, but the very qualities which lead to distinction. The sway of such a wretch, though only temporary, is a warning lesson to abilities and genius enamoured of revolution, that by succeeding in its pro-

^m Segur, vol. iii. p. 120.

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jects it is eventually a ladder for exalting the most execrable and contemptible of mankind. Robespierre having thus experienced THE MERITED DOOM OF TYRANNY, the convention pursued measures which tended to alleviate the mischiefs that had accrued from the reign of atrocity, and to prevent the recurrence of the system of terrorism.

THE banished and imprisoned remains of the Gironde party were recalled or released, the most flagrant and infamous of Robespierre's decrees were rescinded, inviolability was restored to the members of the convention ; and, to crown the salutary changes, the jacobin club, that perennial source of anarchy and every flagrant enormity was abolished. From this moment terror by degrees ceased to rule over France, and the dawns of social order began to reappear : religion again lifted up her hallowed voice, and a distant prospect of better days seemed to open to France.

Dawnings
of return-
ing order.

THE internal events which chiefly attracted the public attention in 1794, were the trials for treason, both in Edinburgh and London. In the Scottish metropolis, a person named Robert Watt, being a member of some of the corresponding societies, had offered himself to government as a spy and an informer, but not obtaining from the officers of the crown the sum which he expected and required, he seriously projected to seize by force the castle of Edinburgh, the banks, and the excise office ; also the persons of the lord provost, and of the judges civil and criminal. This project he communicated in a paper to one Downie, a mechanic, and several other members of the societies. Downie appeared to accede, but the others rejected the proposal, and one of them being himself a spy, gave information to government : Watt and Downie were apprehended and tried.

Britain —
Trials for
treason.
Edinburgh.

Watt and
Downie.

Watt's
conspiracy
not treason
by Edward
III.'s sta-
tute.

By the union, the treason laws of England extend to Scotland. Watt's conduct amounted to a conspiracy to levy war against the king, which though not treason by the statute of Edward III. had been usually reckoned treason by judges interpreting that statute, as we have already observed.ⁿ The president of the court of session

ⁿ See the account of lord Loughborough's charge to the grand jury after the riots of 1780, vol. iii. p. 292.

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Treason
by the ju-
dicial in-
terpreta-
tion of that
statute;

was head of a special commission appointed to try these persons, and in his charge, adopted the judicial construction,^o instead of the legislative definition, he described the crime to be treason, the jury admitted his explanation, and as the evidence of the fact was unquestionable, brought their verdict guilty. The defence set up for the prisoner acknowledged most profligate baseness, but pretended that he had proposed the plan to procure accomplices, that he might inform against them, and betray their counsels. His most plausible defence would have been the irrelevancy of the charge, and his counsel might have alleged, that the decisions of judges militating against the express definition of a statute, did not constitute the law of the land; and as the treason law then stood, a conspiracy to levy war was not one of its clauses: on this ground, however, Watt did not insist. Downie was also condemned, but recommended to mercy, and being found to be misled by ignorance rather than prompted by malignity, received a pardon; but Watt was executed.

is con-
demned,
and suffers
death.

ABOUT this time the public were greatly alarmed by the report of a plot to assassinate the king. The persons accused of this nefarious intent were Le Maitre, a watchmaker's apprentice; Higgins, a chymist's apprentice; and Smith, who kept a book stall: the accuser was Upton, also a watchmaker's apprentice. According to this person's account, an instrument was to have been formed like a walking stick, in the stick there was to be a brass tube, through which one of the conspirators was to blow a poisoned dart at his majesty, at a time and place to be afterwards determined. Such mischievous machinations had really been discovered, and so many more were believed, that the nation in general was in a state of alarm, and great numbers swallowed this improbable and absurd story. The men were committed to prison; but ministers, after investigating the evidence, found it so contradictory and incredible, that the alleged conspirators were set at liberty.

Alleged
plot to
assassinate
the king.

The alle-
gations
supported
by no
proof.

BUT the accused persons who chiefly occupied the thoughts of all parties, and drew the public attention from the successes of the French, were messrs. Hardy, Tooke

^o See lord president Campbell's charge to the jury of Edinburgh in August, 1794.

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Trial of
Thomas
Hardy,
John
Horne
Tooke, and
John Thel-
wal, for
high trea-
son.

Thelwal, and their fellow prisoners in the Tower. During the greater part of summer and autumn they had been kept in close confinement. In September a special commission was appointed, and in October opened by the lord chief justice Eyre, who, in a charge to the grand jury, appeared to consider the alleged facts, as, if proved, amounting to high treason.^p The grand jury forming the same opinion, found a bill of indictment against Thomas Hardy, John Horne Tooke, J. A. Bonney, Steward Kydd, Jeremiah Joyce, Thomas Wardell, Thomas Holcroft, John Ritcher, Matthew More, John Thelwal, R. Hodson, and John Baxter. John Martin, attorney, was afterwards indicted in a separate bill. On the 28th of October the trial of Thomas Hardy began : the charge consisted of nine overt acts, the substance of which was, that the accused had conspired to compass the king's death, by a conspiracy to hold a convention which should overturn government ; and thus had conspired to levy war against the king, and to excite rebellion against his government, and that they had procured arms for that purpose. The legal amount of the charge therefore, was, a conspiracy against the constitution and peace of the kingdom. A conspiracy to levy war, as we have repeatedly observed, is not treason by the statute of Edward III. though it had been construed as treason by many interpreters of that statute. The evidence against Mr. Hardy was partly written, partly oral. Many of the papers charged as treasonable, had been communicated to the public in advertisements, and none of them were peculiar to him, but common to the whole corresponding society, in the name of which he acted as secretary ; and none of them by any reasonable construction could amount to treason. The oral evidence consisted of two classes of men ; the first, respectable persons of unquestionable and unquestioned veracity ; the second, of hired spies, of course deserving no credit on their own account, but to be believed or not according to the congruity of their testimony with other circumstances. The evidence of the first class proved little but what was more strongly expressed in the written documents ; the

^p See judge Eyre's charge to the grand jury of Middlesex, in October, 1794.

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evidence of the second set, though very prompt⁹ in general assertion, yet, when by interrogation chained down to specific facts, whatever they advanced, maintained nothing stronger than what had appeared from the manuscripts and printed papers. The project of holding a convention indeed was proved, but there was no evidence that the purpose was treasonable ; and the general result was, that the corresponding society, and Mr. Hardy as its secretary, had been active in conduct of a seditious tendency, a proposition very well known before, but totally irrelative to a charge of high treason. The trial lasted seven days, a period unprecedented in the history of capital prosecutions. The attorney general, with a minuteness of detail, not only laudable but necessary in his professional situation, spoke for nine hours, and displayed that candour of construction and liberality of sentiment which he has uniformly manifested in the successive stations that he has been called to fill.⁷ The prisoner's defence was intrusted to two counsellors, both of distinguished ability. The one was Mr. Gibbs, eminent for extent and precision of legal knowledge, for clear and logical pleading ; who acquired very high reputation by his efforts. The other was the honourable Thomas Erskine, who, though little more than forty years of age, and bred up to the profession of arms, for sixteen years he had been the shining ornament of the English bar, and exalted the judicial eloquence of his country to an equality with the best exertions of either Greece or Rome ; and if in the Pitts, Fox, Burke, and Sheridan, these realms presented rivals to Demosthenes and Cicero in deliberative eloquence ; they raised a rival to the best pleading of Cicero, in the judicial efforts of Mr. Erskine. With professional knowledge and science, this celebrated orator embodied a wide range of history and literature, and a thorough conversancy with human life, moral and political philosophy : such attainments, invigorated by genius, and adorned with persuasive grace, spoke through the heads to the hearts of his hearers, in the most impressive eloquence. His exhibition on this trial, inferior to Tully's defence of Milo, constituted a brilliant epoch in the oratory of the British bar.

Abilities of
the law-
yers on
both sides.

Extraordi-
nary elo-
quence of
Mr. Er-
skine.

⁹ See evidence of Groves, Lingham, Gosling and Taylor, in Gurney's account of the State Trials, 1794.

⁷ See State Trials.

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The accus-
ed are, re-
spectively
acquitted.

THE jury having maturely weighed the law, allegations, and proofs, returned a verdict, NOT GUILTY. The acquittal of Hardy gave very general satisfaction: impartial friends of the king and constitution were aware, that the best security of those was the upright administration of law even towards their enemies; and were pleased that a person was acquitted, whose proven acts had not contravened the statutes, which only established the crime of treason. Many who thought highly of the ministers, yet did not wish liberty, property, and life to be so much in their power, as at their instance to subject freeborn Britons to capital punishment upon such vague and circuitous construction. The verdict in favour of Hardy was considered as a very favourable omen to the others who should be tried. After the intermission of several days, Mr. Horne Tooke was brought to the bar. The evidence for the crown, written and oral, consisted of nearly the same materials that had been already presented on the trial of Hardy. It appeared, however, that the present defendant had been much more guarded and moderate than most of the other votaries of reform, and had constrained them as exceeding wise and reasonable bounds. He indeed appears never to have approved of annual parliaments or universal suffrage; and was friendly to the constitution of king, lords and commons; though he wished a change in the latter branch, which he conceived would render it less liable to corruption. No treasonable act having been proved against the accused, the verdict of course was, NOT GUILTY. Mr. Tooke adduced, as exculpatory evidence, the duke of Richmond, Mr. Pitt, and others, who had been advocates of parliamentary reform. The questions put to these witnesses did not tend to produce any defence of Mr. Tooke's conduct, their substance related to the share taken by the witnesses themselves in parliamentary reform at a totally different period; they are therefore to be considered not as exculpations of the defendant but as charges of inconsistency against the witnesses themselves, in their political conduct. As the innocence or guilt of Mr. Tooke did not depend on the facts which his majesty's ministers might, as ministers, either acknowledge or deny, their testimonies could an-

swer no purpose relative to the charge, and were therefore unnecessary at his trial: other purposes, however, their exhibition might answer, by reminding the public, that they who were now inimical to one species of reform had once been favourable to another, they impressed that numerous class which, in estimating conduct often disregards circumstances, with an opinion that the ministers were apostates. The call upon Mr. Pitt and the duke of Richmond to be witnesses at the trial of Mr. Tooke, was evidently not a measure of judicial exculpation, where none was required, but a political censure which so many were desirous of heaping upon ministers. The pleadings by messrs. Gibbs and Erskine, were worthy of their preceding efforts; but Mr. Tooke himself was a very powerful counsel in his own favour.

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AFTER this acquittal which took place on the 22d of November, the attorney general declined any farther prosecution of the remaining members of the constitutional society; and on Monday the 1st of December, a jury being impannelled *pro forma*, messrs. Bonney, Joyce, Kydd, and Holcroft, were acquitted and discharged. Next came the trial of Thelwal: it appeared from the evidence that, in his conduct, and still more in his expressions, this person had been much more violent than the two others, but nothing which was proved against him amounting to treason, he was accordingly acquitted.

WHATEVER may have been the intentions of any of these individuals, as their acts by no means constituted legal guilt, their acquittal bearing so high testimony to the purity of trial by jury, manifested the excellence of our judicature, in constitution, and practice. No doctrine can be more inconsistent with the security of a free country than constructive treason, and none has the discriminating justice of the English law more severely reprobated. Constructive treason indeed is an engine of tyranny, under whatever forms it has been established. When the anti-monarchical party predominated in England, the first victim of its uncontrolled injustice suffered for constructive and accumulative treason.¹ Earl Straf-

Observations on their acquittal

¹ See trial of lord Strafford; Hume's History vol. v.; and State Trials.

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ford, however morally culpable, or politically hurtful his conduct might be, was not legally guilty by any existing law, and was a sacrifice to party rage. Under Charles II. Russel and Sydney, by constructive treason, fell victims to monarchical tyranny. Instances have, in much more benignant reigns, occurred of men suffering from wrested interpretations, when obnoxious to the ruling party; but under the equitable and enlightened principles and sentiments of the present age, whoever might be the accusers, the accused were assured of strict and legal justice.

Riots in
the me-
tropolis
about per-
sons called
crimps.

THIS summer there was a great disturbance in the capital, on account of villanies and cruelties asserted to have been committed in houses employed for enlisting recruits. It was affirmed, that various persons had been kidnapped to these abodes, and confined until they consented to become soldiers. Some discoveries of this kind having been made, and many more having been reported, the populace became extremely outrageous, and destroyed various houses alleged to be the scenes of these atrocities. After being violent and riotous for about six days, the ferment of the people at last subsided.

Treaty be-
tween Bri-
tain and
America.

THIS summer a treaty was concluded between Great Britain and America, tending powerfully to promote the political amity and commercial benefit of both countries. Several changes took place in administration, making room for the whigs who had seceded from Mr. Fox at the commencement of the war: lord Fitzwilliam was made viceroy of Ireland, the duke of Portland third secretary of state, Mr. Windham secretary at war, and earl Spencer first lord of the admiralty.

Meeting
of parlia-
ment.
Mr. Pitt
augurs the
downfall of
the pre-
sent sys-
tem of
France,
from the
exhaustion
of her
finances.

PARLIAMENT met on the 30th of December 1794: his majesty's speech urged the necessity of perseverance in the war, notwithstanding our disappointments; and augured the ultimate success of the allies, from the progressive and rapid decay of French resources, and the instability of every part of that unnatural system. The Dutch had, he observed, from a sense of present difficulties, made overtures for peace with the prevailing party in France; but no established government could derive security from such a negotiation. The most effectual

means had therefore been employed for the farther augmentation of the forces; on whose valour, as well as on the public spirit of the people, his majesty professed he had the utmost reliance. In addition to the arguments frequently repeated for the continuance of the war, the minister laid great stress on the exhaustion of the French finances. By a very copious detail of their pecuniary proceedings, illustrated and embellished by his usual eloquence, he endeavoured to prove that France was in the gulf of bankruptcy, and that the ruin of the revolutionary system was inevitable, if we pressed them with vigour: peace would be totally impolitic, even if attainable; and with the present rulers it could not be permanent. In recommending peace, besides dwelling on the unfortunate events of the last campaign, opposition contended, that the French were beginning to return to social order; and that the hopes of subduing them by the exhaustion of their finances were chimerical. What were the proofs of such a failure? Was it their extraordinary energy of efforts and abundant supply of clothing and provisions? The causes which brought a regularly governed state to the last period of its military exertions, would, by no means, produce the same effect on a revolutionary government, which possessed all the existing means and resources of the country. To reduce them to the last extremity, there must be no land, no productions, no labourers, no soldiers, in short, no faculties of any kind in the whole extent of the territory. France had been driven to unprecedented exertions by an enthusiasm, the efforts of which the pressure of the confederacy had invigorated; there being such a spring to their enterprise, all calculations of resources formed on usual principles, must be altogether erroneous. Whatever hopes of success there might have been at the beginning of the war, they were now entirely vanished; and the confederacy was dissolved. Besides, let us consider the success of our arms: all our preparations, financial and military, had been totally useless. Why should we carry on a war in which all our efforts were to be wasted? The French were now very materially changed: the

Opposition contends that the enthusiastic energy of the French would discover new resources; and alleges France to be returning to social order.

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terrible system had entirely ceased ;^t jacobinism, so hostile to this country, was destroyed, and moderation was at least the assumption of a virtue, which showed the real opinion of the people of France. The French republicans were now probably not disinclined to peace ; let us therefore propose a negotiation. Whether successful or not, it would be extremely beneficial to this country : should our proffers be rejected, the consequence would be, that as we should then have right on our side, every person would unite in cooperating with government with the greatest vigour and firmness, in what then would be a just and necessary war. It was replied, that the disasters of the conflict arose from our allies : wherever we had fought alone, we had been signally successful. The balance of territorial acquisitions and pecuniary resources was greatly in our favour ; and France had lost more in permanent value and present means, than the losses of all the allies united together. The alteration which had taken place was only the change of a name, and not of a substance. The present government was no more moderate than the government under Brissot, which had provoked this country to war. Peace with such a system could not be secure ; we must, on the contrary, increase our precautions. Hostilities would again be commenced by France, when the military force of her enemies was reduced by a pretended peace. No treaty could be stable that should be made with a government so totally unfettered by every principle of religion and justice. In spite of partial disappointment, there was a moral certainty that we should ultimately prevail in the contest. These arguments were repeated in the discussion of sundry motions^u for the attainment of peace ; and the majority of parliament being determined to persist in the war, the pacific

^t This argument was chiefly employed by Mr. Wilberforce ; who, though he had voted for the war, was this session the advocate of peace.

^u By the earl of Stanhope, on the 6th of January, for no interference in the internal affairs of France. By Mr. Grey, on the 26th of February, that the present government ought not to be considered as precluding a negotiation for peace. By the duke of Bedford, on the 27th of February, to the same purpose. By Mr. Wilberforce, on the 27th of May, that in the present circumstances of France, the British government ought not to object to proposals for a general pacification ; and that it was the interest of the nation to put an end to the war as soon as just and honourable terms could be obtained. See Parliamentary Reports for 1795.

propositions were successively negatived. Lord Grenville moved, in lieu of a conciliatory motion by the duke of Bedford, that a vigorous prosecution of the war was the most effectual means for producing a solid and permanent peace.

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In the course of these debates, the practicability of negotiation with the present rulers, was very ably discussed on both sides. Ministers contended, that the French republicans entertained an irreconcilable hatred to this country and its inhabitants; and that the principal motive of their willingness to make peace with the other members of the confederacy was, that they might convert their whole rage against Britain. The very principles of the French republic were such, that to acknowledge its legitimacy, which must be done in case of a treaty, was to confess all other governments to be founded upon injustice. A peace, built on such grounds, would be not only disgraceful, but fatal to our own constitution, by undermining its principles, and empowering its many domestic enemies to represent it as iniquitous and oppressive.

Discussion
respecting
the practi-
cability of
negotia-
tion.

WHOEVER carefully reviews the ministerial speeches of this session, will observe a very striking and important difference between their general scope and that of the preceding years of war. Their objections to peace now much more frequently consisted of arguments taken from the internal constitution of France. Though they did not directly and avowedly state the restoration of monarchy as a condition of peace, yet professing to make war for the sake of security, they very plainly intimated, that they knew of no other means of security, but the restoration of monarchy.^x That they did not require the restoration of monarchy as an indispensable condition, but as the means of another condition, was a nice and subtle logical distinction, though in point of practical effect, there was little real difference; as peace upon that supposition could not be admitted unless the proposed means existed. This doctrine, it may be observed, ap-

^x See speeches of Mr. Pitt, lord Grenville, and Mr. Windham, at the beginning of the session, and repeatedly afterwards when the subject was agitated. See parliamentary Debates for 1795.

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proached much nearer to the AVOWED doctrines of Mr. Burke than any which ministers had before expressed. After the events of the last campaign, ministers could not really suppose the probability of such a restoration by external pressure to be increased. They could not imagine that Britain and Austria, after the loss of Belgium and Holland, were nearer the establishment of the house of Bourbon, through their sole efforts, than when, in conjunction with Prussia and the greater part of Europe, they had been advanced on the frontiers of France. Such expectations, if they at all existed, must have been built on other grounds than the relative state of France and the confederates; and this change is to be accounted for from different causes.

Senti-
ments and
reasons of
the whigs
who sepa-
rated from
Mr. Fox.

THE political objects and views of Mr. Burke, concerning the purpose of the war, as has been already shown, were materially different from those which ministers professed at its commencement to seek. His opinions had been adopted in a considerable degree by those members of the old whig aristocracy who separated from Mr. Fox. They conceived the monarchical and aristocratical part of the constitution to be endangered from the dissemination of democratical principles. Mr. Fox's conduct they thought of a tendency too favourable to the preponderance of democracy. Whatever might be their diversities of opinion in other respects, Mr. Pitt and his party agreed with them in supporting the privileged orders. Through French principles, combined with a corresponding government, they deemed the property, dignity, and privileges of the higher ranks endangered; their ardent wish was to reestablish monarchy in France, as the means of preserving the monarchy and aristocracy of England. The introduction of so many of their members into the British cabinet evidently influenced the sentiments, or at least the counsels, of their colleagues, and the support of the royal cause in France, probably in compliance with their wishes, became one of the chief objects of military schemes; and hopes were sanguine as wishes were ardent. These were warmly cherished by the representations of the emigrants, who, either in their conception or reports, or both, extravagantly magnified

the number and force of the royalists. Ministers, especially Mr. Windham and others who had recently come into office, appear to have believed the greater part of what the emigrants stated, and to have projected plans of powerful and effectual cooperation which would, they fancied, promote the reestablishment of royalty in France. These accessions to the cabinet, with the political and military measures which they contributed to produce, had probably their share in effecting this difference in the ministerial reasonings of that session.

PERCEIVING ministers and a very great majority of parliament totally averse to every overture for accommodation with France, opposition proposed to inquire into the state in which the nation was placed by the war. The management of this momentous subject was undertaken by Mr. Fox; and on the 24th of March he moved that a committee of the whole house should be appointed to consider the state of the kingdom. After our discomfiture at Saratoga, in the American war, he had made a similar motion,^y and it had been received, though our situation was far from being equal in peril to the present. The most evident necessity now dictated an inquiry: the war had lasted only two years, and, in that short period, the enemy had made a progress unknown to former eras; they had overcome all resistance, and acquired such an extent of territory as placed them in the most alarming state of superiority to the confederacy which had been formed for reducing their ancient power. The losses of Britain had been immense, both in killed and prisoners.^z Our pecuniary expenditure had amounted to seventy millions, and the permanent taxes which it had occasioned, to three millions. What return was made to the nation for this enormous profusion of blood and treasure? Our subsidies to our allies had been equally useless as our own exertions. What did England gain by subsidising Sardinia? Were the British constitution, independence, and power; the liberty, property, and lives of British subjects, more secure from the guarantee of the king of Sardinia? What had been the effect of our subsidy to the king of Prussia?

Motions
for an in-
quiry into
the man-
agement of
the war,
and state
of the na-
tion.

^y See vol. ii. p. 182.
detailed enumeration.

^z This position he attempted to prove by a

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that our money had been paid, and that he had not performed the stipulated service. If the war continued, other subsidies would be wanted, which would be equally unavailing. Affairs in Ireland also demanded investigation;^a the extreme irritation of the great mass of the people ought to warn ministers not to render themselves responsible for the very possible event of its dismemberment from the British empire, by the refusal of an inquiry into the discontents of its inhabitants. In England, dissatisfaction was prevalent: an idea pervaded the mass of the people, that the commons could not fairly be reputed the representatives of the nation,^b from their undeviating compliance with every measure proposed by ministry, notwithstanding the ill success with which they had conducted the war. What were the grounds for so extraordinary a confidence in men whose schemes were continually miscarrying? Even suppose the war had been just (which he was not now canvassing), did the succession of plans and series of events afford reasonable grounds for reposing unlimited confidence in the present counsellors of his majesty, as wise, energetic, and effective war ministers? If they really deserved trust, they would not resist inquiry; men that dreaded a scrutiny into their conduct, afforded the clearest presumption that it would not bear examination. No man conscious of the able and upright discharge of his duty, will flinch from an investigation of his actions. Mr. Pitt objected to inquiry on the plan proposed by Mr. Fox, as too extensive to be compatible with the other business of parliament. Parts of his objects were inexpedient and unreasonable: Mr. Fox had exaggerated our losses, and detracted from our advantages, and on the whole had exhibited an unfair statement of our situation; and the inquiry at present would be productive of many mischiefs, and no benefit. It was replied, both by messrs. Sheridan and Fox, that Mr. Pitt, instead of meeting it, had shifted the question; that if Mr. Fox had misrepresented the situation of the country, the means of confuting his statements were not the

^a Mr. Fox particularly alluded to the recel of earl Fitzwilliam, which is included in a subsequent part of the narrative.

^b See Parliamentary Debates, March 27th, 1795.

assertions of the party concerned, but a fair investigation of conduct. These arguments, though it must be owned not entirely without weight, did not impress the majority of the commons. Credit was given to ministers on their claims of confidence, and Mr. Fox's motion was negatived: a similar proposition by earl Guilford in the house of peers, was also rejected. Specific motions were afterwards made in both houses for an inquiry respecting Irish affairs, but with as little success.

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1795.
are nega-
tived.

THE preparations for the ensuing campaign, early in the session came under the consideration of parliament. One important branch of these was to strengthen our allies. The emperor had signified his earnest inclination to make the most vigorous efforts against the common enemy, but intimated the necessity of pecuniary assistance, in a loan of four millions, on the credit of the revenues, which arose from his hereditary dominions. Through such an accommodation he proposed to bring two hundred thousand men into the field. His Britannic majesty expressed his wish that the emperor should not only receive the desired supply, but also, that by means of a similar loan to a greater extent, he might be enabled to employ a still more considerable force. A message to that effect was, on the 4th of February, delivered to the house of commons, and in a few days after to the house of peers. Mr. Pitt made a motion for the loan required: in discussing this proposition, the anti-ministerial party naturally, took a view of the Prussian subsidy, and its misapplication. The ministers, without justifying the conduct of the king of Prussia, contended that the present loan would be powerfully conducive to the purposes of the war; that there would be no doubted security from Austria for the performance of the contract, and that the risk was not so great as the probable advantage. Mr. Pitt therefore proposed that Britain should guarantee the loan: a similar proposition was made in the house of peers, and a law was passed pledging the national faith for the security of the sums borrowed by the emperor. A convention, agreeable to the intimation of the king, was concluded between his majesty and the emperor of Germany, for enabling him to bring a still greater force against the enemy. The whole amount

Parliamentary provisions for the approaching campaign.

Loan to the emperor.

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Supplies.

Taxes.

Plan of
Mr. Pitt
for man-
ning the
navy.

raised for Austria under the guarantee of parliament amounted to four million six hundred thousand pounds.

THE force required by Britain for the service of 1795, amounted to one hundred thousand seamen, one hundred and twenty thousand regulars for the guard and garrisons of the kingdom, sixty-six thousand militia, and forty thousand men employed partly in Ireland and partly in the West Indies and the plantations, exclusive of fencibles and volunteers, foreign troops in the British pay, and embodied French emigrants. The sums required to maintain this force, with the extraordinaries and ordnance, for the Sardinian subsidy, and all the public services of the year, amounted to twenty-seven millions, five hundred and forty thousand pounds, requiring a loan of eighteen millions.

The taxes were upon wine, foreign and British spirits, tea, coffee, insurances, foreign grocery and fruits, timber, increase of postoffice duty by abridging the privilege of franking, and on hair powder. The loan having been raised by private contract and not by open competition, was severely censured; the terms were alleged to be, at least, five per cent more favourable to the contractors than was necessary.

IN furnishing the requisite force for the current year greatly surpassing the demands of former exigencies, it was necessary to consider the most speedy and effectual means for levying soldiers and sailors. Mr. Pitt proposed a new plan for manning the navy, and instead of attempting to throw the burden on any particular class of society, to call upon the public, by requiring the contributions of all districts: he proposed as much as possible to supersede the necessity of pressing sailors, which besides its hardships, was accidental and partial in its operation towards the owners of ships; he therefore moved, that a supply should be required from the mercantile marine in general. The proprietors of merchantmen were the most deeply interested in maintaining the naval superiority, by which their valuable property was protected. Let them contribute one man out of every seven, with smaller proportions from the coasting trade; and also a certain number from those who were employed in inland navigation; and that besides one man should be furnished by each parish

After a few modifications the proposition was passed into a law, and officers were immediately despatched to superintend the several kinds of levy. Mr. Windham, as secretary at war, reviewed the means of internal defence, and proposed to render the militia more efficient, to augment its number, improve its discipline, and assimilate it as much as possible to the army. To effect this object it was necessary to employ expert subalterns, and to encourage such to offer their services, he proposed an additional allowance to be made to their pay in time of peace, and a bill for that purpose was introduced. Messrs. Fox and Sheridan opposed it as tending to increase the influence and patronage of ministers, and to place the whole military strength of the kingdom under their immediate direction; a step which was evidently preparatory to the complete establishment of arbitrary power; but their objections were overruled. With a view farther to promote the discipline of the militia, it was judged requisite to introduce artillery into that body. The bill authorized the pressing into the regular corps, those militia men who should become expert in the management of artillery. It also permitted those privates who were inclined to enter into the navy, or in the artillery, to quit the militia service. These and other clauses tending to encourage militia men to become soldiers, encountered strong objections; but the bill was passed by a great majority. This year had been remarkable for scarcity and dearth; the price of provisions was so high that the pay of soldiers was insufficient, and great complaints prevailed. Government, without communicating with parliament, had bestowed an extraordinary allowance to make up for the high price of bread. Though the measure was not only humane but necessary in itself, yet the mode of carrying it into execution was disapproved, as tending to establish a precedent for maintaining soldiers without the consent of parliament. The attempt was represented as the more inexcusable, as parliament was sitting, competent and disposed to provide supplies according to the circumstances of the case; and a resolution was proposed, declaring it illegal to augment the pay of the army without the consent of parliament. Ministers vindicated the measure as merely temporary and the result of

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1795.
Plan of
Mr. Wind-
ham for
the im-
provement
of the
militia.

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Discussion
of the late
acquittals.

necessity ; that no increase was intended, but a mere occasional supply. After a warm discussion, in which many constitutional topics were introduced, the motion was negatived.^c

MOTIONS were made by the opposition in both houses to repeal the suspension of the habeas corpus act. The discussion of that subject introduced a review of the prosecutions and trials for high treason : the acquittals had been incidentally mentioned in various debates about the beginning of the session ; but on the 5th of January, Mr. Sheridan made a direct motion on the following grounds : the preamble to the suspension stated, that a dangerous and treasonable conspiracy existed in this country ; but a verdict in court had shown this conspiracy to be a mere fabrication. The parties had undergone the strictest trial, and no pains had been spared for their crimination. What were the proofs of the supposed conspiracy ? An arsenal furnished with one pike and nine rusty muskets, and an exchequer containing nine pounds and one bad shilling. These were the ways and means with which the conspirators proposed to overturn the government of Great Britain. No treason had in fact been brought to light, the alleged ground of the suspension did not exist, therefore the suspension, which in fact suspended the whole British constitution, was an unnecessary infringement of the rights of Britons. Mr. Windham maintained, that the favourable verdict in the late trials arose from the ignorance and incapacity of the juries to discern the true state of the case. The real objects of the societies was to overturn the constitution, and the principles imported from France would produce the worst effects, unless they were opposed with the strictest vigilance. The determination of a jury was no proof of the nonexistence of a conspiracy. There was, indeed, the strongest ground for believing that a desperate conspiracy had existed, and still existed. From their whole conduct was it not probable that the designs of the societies were the destruction of the monarch and the constitution ? They were often acquitted in courts of justice ; not because they were considered as innocent, but merely because there

c. See Parliamentary Reports of 1795.

was no strictly legal evidence produced to confirm the truth. A doubt of their guilt was sufficient in the breast of the jury, but by no means to clear the character of the accused. The verdict in their favour could not, therefore, operate as a motive for repealing the act, even were we to admit that their indictment for high treason had not been supported by legal proofs: if the judicious and unbiassed public looked upon them as guilty of an attempt for which the law had not provided a due punishment, it was the duty of parliament to make such provision. The motion for repeal was rejected; and before the term of the act expired, it was renewed.

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MR. DUNDAS brought forward his annual statement of the affairs of the East India company, in the month of June. The result of the details was, that the company's affairs were improved upwards of one million four hundred and twelve thousand pounds. Notwithstanding the discouragements and obstructions arising from the war, and while the European markets were shut against them, their sales were more extensive than ever. The surplus revenue would not be so large in future, on account of our appropriation of a part to the just claims of the army. There was now a great and necessary military establishment; but the company had no higher rank in their service than colonel; this deprived eminent military characters of that rank in which they often repose as the best part of their reward: there was also, at present, but a slow progression of inferior stations. He proposed a certain proportion of general and field officers at the different settlements. He farther moved, that whereas before officers returning from India received no allowance from the company, those who had served twenty years in the army should retain full pay for life. If sickness required the return of an officer, he thought he ought to be allowed, upon the opinion of a medical man, to leave India without loss of rank or pay.

Statement
of the af-
fairs of the
India com-
pany.

DURING this parliamentary session an event of great national importance took place, in the marriage of the heir apparent to the throne of these kingdoms. His highness espoused his royal father's niece, princess Caroline, daughter of the duke of Brunswic, and his dutchess Au-

Marriage
of the
prince of
Wales
with the
princess
Caroline of
Brunswic.

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gusta of England. Lord Malmesbury was employed to conduct the royal bride from her father's court. Arriving at Hamburg, her highness was conveyed in a squadron commanded by commodore Payne. On the 7th of April she landed at Greenwich hospital, and in one of his majesty's coaches attended by a suite of carriages, and escorted by a party of the prince's own regiment, she proceeded to town, amidst troops of dragoons who were stationed on the road in honour of the princess. Hundreds of horsemen and carriages, with immense crowds of spectators, testified their joy at the arrival of the young and beautiful stranger. The people cheered the princess with loud expressions of love and loyalty, and she very graciously bowed and smiled at them as she passed along. Having arrived at St. James's, the people with the ardent eagerness of spontaneous loyalty, which flows from the generous and manly breasts of freeborn Britons, continued their congratulations. Her highness standing with the prince at the window, addressed them concisely, but impressively, in the English language: "Believe me, I feel very happy and delighted to see the GOOD and BRAVE English people—the best nation upon earth."^d The prince afterwards accosted his countrymen with the grace by which he is so eminently distinguished: both were received with the most rapturous applause. On the 8th of April the marriage of his royal highness George prince of Wales and the princess Caroline of Brunswick was solemnized, in the chapel royal, by the archbishop of Canterbury. The nuptials were celebrated with a magnificence suitable to the rank of the illustrious parties. The income of the heir apparent was greatly inferior to the revenue of predecessors in that exalted situation, since his illustrious family was called to the throne. It had never amounted to more than 60,000*l.* in the present reduced value of money; whereas the establishment of his grand-father and great grandfather was 100,000*l.* when the value of money was so much higher. Hence the benignant liberality of his highness found it impossible to confine his expenditure within his annual receipts.

^d See Otridge's Annual Register for 1795, p. 15.

On the 27th of April, a message from his majesty to the commons announcing the marriage of the prince, expressed the king's conviction that a provision would be made for the suitable establishment of the prince and princess. It also stated, that his highness was under pecuniary incumbrances, and recommended to parliament his gradual extrication, by applying to that purpose part of the income which should have been settled on the prince, and appropriating to that object the revenues of the dutchy of Cornwall. When the message was taken into consideration, it appeared that the debts of his highness exceeded six hundred thousand pounds. The civil list by no means could bear even the gradual liquidation of so heavy a debt. It was not in the present state of public affairs proposed to call upon the nation for such a sum, whence was it then to be liquidated but by savings from the prince's income. It was fair, reasonable, consistent with the dignity and policy of the country, that his highness should be placed on an equal footing with former princes of Wales. One hundred thousand pounds, eighty years ago, constituted the whole revenue of his great grandfather George II. then prince of Wales; and the income of his grandfather, thirty years after, amounted to the like sum, exclusive of the dutchy of Cornwall. A hundred and twenty-five thousand pounds at present, was not more than a hundred thousand sixty years ago. It was proposed that a hundred and twenty-five thousand, together with thirteen thousand arising from the dutchy of Cornwall should be settled on the prince, of which seventy-eight thousand pounds should be appropriated to the liquidation of his incumbrances, and that an arrangement should be made to prevent the contraction of farther debts. This proposition encountered several objections, and various substitutes were proposed: why might not the prince's life interest in the duchy of Cornwall be sold? It would fetch three hundred thousand pounds, successive ministers had appropriated the revenue of the dutchy of Cornwall to the civil list: a contribution, therefore, from the civil list ought to have been made at present. It would not be a gift from the civil list, but the payment of the balance of an account. After repeated and various dis-

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1795.

Provision
for the
establish-
ment of
their high-
nesses.

Arrange-
ment for
the pay-
ment of
the prin-
ce's debts.

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1795.

Applica-
tion from
the West
India mer-
chants.

cussions, the plan proposed by Mr. Pitt was adopted, and commissioners were appointed to superintend the discharge of his incumbrances. Provisions were also made to prevent the farther contraction of debts; and a law was passed to prevent future princes of Wales from being involved in similar difficulties. A jointure of fifty thousand pounds per annum was settled upon the princess of Wales, if she should survive his royal highness.

THIS session the West India merchants, especially of Grenada and St. Vincents, laboured under great pecuniary embarrassments. In consequence of insurrections and other calamities, they were much injured in their property, and suffered great inconveniencies in their commerce. From these gentlemen a petition was brought to parliament, praying for such relief as might be judged most expedient. Mr. Pitt reminded the house of the very great benefits which had accrued to the mercantile world two years before, from the means devised for supporting commercial credit, and proposed a similar plan to answer the exigencies of these merchants, by issuing bills of exchequer for their accommodation. Mr. Fox strongly reprobated this interference of the public in private concerns: it tended to create an influence over the great commercial body, that would place it in the most abject dependence on ministers. Hence they would become the invariable supporters of all governments, good or bad, in expectation of assistance from them in every pecuniary difficulty. Of the many innovations lately introduced, this was one of the most dangerous and alarming: it would reduce a class of people, hitherto remarkable for their independent spirit, to a situation of subserviency, that would necessarily destroy all their former importance, and subject them entirely to the direction and management of future administrations. These considerations not weighing with the majority of parliament, the proposed relief was granted. An attempt was made in the house of commons this session to attach blame to the conduct of sir Charles Grey and sir John Jervis; but the subject being discussed, it was found that there was no reason for censure, and that every part of their proceedings had been highly merito-

rious. The thanks of the house, voted in the preceding session, were confirmed.

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LV.

Mr. WILBERFORCE this year recalled the attention of the house to a subject which appeared at present to be dormant; this was the slave trade, so zealously reprobated by one party, as equally criminal and disgraceful; and no less warmly justified by the other, as absolutely necessary in the actual situation of the commercial and colonial affairs of Great Britain. He reminded them, that a formal resolution had passed in the session of 1792, that after the expiration of the month of January 1796, it should no longer be lawful to import African negroes into the British colonies and plantations. Besides repeating former arguments, he mentioned the manifest disposition of the newly imported negroes to rise against the white people, and of the consequent necessity of maintaining a numerous military force to keep them in awe and subjection. He proposed a final abolition of the slave trade; but after a very warm debate, the motion was negatived.

1795.
Motion of
Mr. Wil-
berforce
for the
abolition of
the slave
trade,

is nega-
tived.

THIS session the trial of Mr. Hastings, after having lasted seven years, terminated in his honourable acquittal. Out of twenty-nine peers who pronounced judgment on the occasion, twenty-three declared him innocent. The East India company, conscious of the immense advantages which they had derived from the exertions of this extraordinary man, discharged the whole expense of the trial, and also presented him with a moderate pecuniary gift, to prevent from indigence so illustrious a servant, who had always attended so much more effectually to the interests of his employers than to his own. Though every authentic and impartial historian must bestow high praise on the political ability which saved India, yet he must allow, that there were certain portions of his conduct manifestly inconsistent with the rules of justice which prevail in Britain. Whoever considers the Rohilla war, the administration of the revenues, the presents, the expulsion of Cheyt Sing, and the seizure of the treasures of the begums, with the documents, testimonies, and circumstances that appeared to the committee, and afterwards even on the trial, may find sufficient grounds for a man, feeling and reasonging as an Englishman, to impute culpa-

Termina-
tion of Has-
tings's trial
by an hon-
ourable
acquittal.

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bility—great culpability, to Mr. Hastings. His subsequent justification of conduct, apparently blamable, does not render the inquirer into these appearances, and very prominent appearances, of wrong, the object of censure. Men must judge from probability, until it be proved false: apparent culpability is a proper subject of investigation, although, on inquiry, either proof should be wanting, or even innocence or merit should be established. Those who consider the imputation of unworthy motives to the accusers of Mr. Hastings, confirmed by his acquittal, reason very inconclusively. Where is the evidence for such allegations? The discussion of the conduct of the governor general came before a committee, in the unforeseen progress of inquiry: Mr. Burke, a member of the committee, agreed with all the other members in deeming certain proceedings stated before them, either in oral or written evidence, if true, extremely reprehensible. Examining the affairs of India still farther, and not discovering the exculpatory matter which was afterwards established before the lords, he and many others of both the political parties which then prevailed, thought there were sufficient grounds to justify parliamentary impeachment. We can no more justly blame Burke, Fox, and Sheridan, for moving an impeachment on the chief subjects, and other gentlemen on less important charges, nor the house of commons for agreeing to the motions, although the peers afterwards acquitted the defendant, than we should blame an attorney general for commencing a prosecution upon the probable grounds of oral and written evidence: or a grand jury for finding a bill, although the person arraigned should, on his trial, have a verdict in his favour of *not guilty*. The merits of Mr. Hastings are intrinsically great, and do not require any extraneous exaggeration; and those who wish to enhance his character by censuring his accusers, manifest an incorrect and inadequate idea of the subject of their deserved applause.

SUCH were the principal events during this session, which terminated on the 27th of June. His majesty's speech contained one passage totally different from the general tenor of ministerial reasonings, which had uniformly exhibited the existing government of France as

incompatible with any ideas of secure peace. Mr. Pitt, indeed, had, in discussing one of the motions for peace, declared his majesty's willingness to terminate the war, on just and honourable grounds, with any government in France, under whatever form, which should appear capable of maintaining the accustomed relations of peace and amity with other countries; but he had constantly represented the government which then subsisted, as incapable of maintaining such relations. His majesty expressed hopes, that peace would eventually arise from the internal state which had now commenced. "It is impossible to contemplate the internal situation of the enemy with whom we are contending, without indulging an hope, that the present circumstances of France may, in their effects, hasten the return of such a state of order and regular government, as may be capable of maintaining the accustomed relations of amity and peace with other powers." Though this declaration afforded only a distant prospect of peace, yet intimating its attainableness without the restoration of monarchy, it gave great satisfaction to all those who did not think a counter revolution in France indispensably necessary to British security. By the party which reprobated every project of peace with the French republicans, it was strongly disrelished.*

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Mr. Pitt declares his majesty's willingness to make peace, if attainable with security, without regard to the form of French government.

IRISH affairs at this season were extremely interesting and important. When earl Fitzwilliam accepted the viceroyalty, as he afterwards declared, he had been authorized to complete the catholic emancipation;^f and as soon as he entered upon his office he had prepared to put this popular measure into execution. The chief members of the Irish ministry at this time were the Beresford party, always inimical to the encouragement of catholics, but ardent supporters of most of the measures recommended by the English ministers. Lord Fitzwilliam dismissed from their offices some of these persons, and chose in their place others favourable to the grand system which he had

Irish affairs. Lord Fitzwilliam viceroy,

* To this declaration Mr. Burke alludes in the beginning of his *Regicide Peace*: he construed it in the following manner: "Citizens Regicides! whenever you find yourselves in the humour, you may have a peace with us. That is a point you may always command as secure. We are constantly in attendance, and nothing you can do shall hinder us from the renewal of our supplications."

^f See lord Fitzwilliam's letter to lord Carlisle

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misunder-
standing
between
him and
ministers,
as to the
extent and
bounds of
his powers.
He is re-
called, and
succeeded
by lord
Camden.

Internal
affairs of
France.

in view. The steps for accelerating the catholic emancipation passed without animadversion from the English ministry; but the dismissal of Mr. Beresford and his adherents gave great offence to the cabinet of London. Lord Fitzwilliam refusing to change his arrangements, he was recalled, and lord Camden, son to the illustrious judge, was appointed his successor. Lord Fitzwilliam arrived in Britain, made his appearance in parliament, challenged ministers to prove, that his measures deserved the blame which their conduct intimated, and demanded an inquiry. Ministers contended, that no blame was attached to lord Fitzwilliam, and therefore no inquiry was necessary for his vindication; and that there were reasons of state which rendered the discussion altogether improper: the motions in the respective houses for an inquiry were negatived.

In the ardent enthusiasm of misunderstood liberty, the French had proceeded, as we have seen, with rapid impetuosity, to break down, one after another, all the embankments of order and regular government, which reason and policy had constructed, or time had collected for restraining the torrent of impetuous passion. Many of the first national assembly had proposed a wise mixture of democracy, aristocracy, and monarchy; but the visionary theories of fanciful metaphysicians, conceiving in mankind a perfection which mankind do not possess, inculcated new schemes of legislation, totally unfit for human beings; and excluded religion, the great moderator of violent, and corrector of vicious passions. With these natural restraints upon the individual, they removed the artificial distinctions of rank and subordination, which conduced to the welfare of society; they destroyed the aristocracy, which best attempters and controls monarchical dictation, and popular fury. Allowing their king too feeble a power, the constitutionalists of 1789 rendered the multitude paramount, gave them unlimited sway, after they had loosened the principles that might have checked the most inordinate and outrageous abuses of their power; and thus they sowed the seeds of all future excesses. The republicans of 1792, pursuing the same levelling principle to a still greater extent, trusted that they could govern without a monarch, as the constitutionalists of 1789 had governed

without separate orders and states. By the all-ruling mob, a junto of scholars and ingenious men, with learning, eloquence, subtlety, and theoretical refinement, proposed to govern without a king; but the engine which they moved they could not command. The constitutionalists unmuzzled, and the republicans goaded, the wild beast that, though at first soothed by their caresses, was soon turned upon themselves, with the unbridled license of passion; impiety and cruelty increased; and democracy was swallowed up by anarchy. In five years, the French had experienced all the changes from arbitrary monarchy, through emancipation, liberty, licentiousness, anarchy, and despotic terror. The era of Robespierre, the season of atheism, anarchy, and terror, was the lowest abyss of the French revolution. There is, as the first^g of modern historians observes, and one^h of the first repeats, an ultimate point of exaltation and depression, which, when human affairs reach, they return in a contrary progress. From the destruction of Robespierre, the proceedings of the French began to show some distinct tendency to social order. The sway of the odious tyrant, terrible as it was while it lasted, was not without its salutary effects. It very clearly demonstrated the terrible consequences of a political society without subordination, government, and religion. But the progress of the return from anarchy to social order, was slow, and often interrupted by formidable conspiracies. The Mountain long predominated, and opposed, with all its might, changes which tended to strengthen the Gironde party, whose vengeance it dreaded.ⁱ The Girondists, constitutionalists, and other enemies to jacobin anarchy, gradually coincided in one great object, the formation of a regular constitution, which should contain a diversity of states, with reciprocal check and control. The chief provisions of this new system were two councils, both chosen by the electoral assemblies. The first, consisting of five hundred members, was stiled the legislative council; its object was to propose laws: the second, consisting of two hundred and fifty members, all above forty years of age, was termed the council of elders;

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The govern-
ment of Robes-
pierre the
lowest
abyss of
revolution-
ary anar-
chy.

Com-
mencing
return of
social
order.

Constitu-
tion of
1795: two
councils,
and an ex-
ecutive di-
rectory of
five.

^g Hume, vol. iii. at the conclusion of Richard III.

^h Robertson, Introduction to Charles V.

ⁱ Segur, vol. iii.

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French
politicians
now con-
vinced that
control of
estates is
necessary.

Death of
the late
king's son.

its object was to confirm laws. One-third of the members was to be rechosen every year. The executive government was vested in a DIRECTORY of five members. The directory was to be partially renewed, by the election of a new member every year; none of the members who thus went out could be reelected till after a lapse of five years. The directory was to be elected by the two councils, in the following manner: the council of five hundred was to make, by secret scrutiny, a list of ten persons; from which the senate, by secret scrutiny, was to select one; the judicial power was to reside in the judges of the department, chosen by the electoral assemblies; with a tribunal of appeal, chosen by the same for the whole nation. The directors might invite the legislative body to take a subject into consideration, but could not propose any topic of discussion, unless concerning peace or war. The directory was not invested with the power of assembling or proroguing the legislative bodies. This constitution showed, that the French politicians had now formed some idea of the utility of a control of estates. It was, however, extremely defective in its executive function, which was not endued with sufficient power to prevent the encroachment of the legislative bodies. The bestowal of the executive power upon five persons, necessarily produced distraction and contest. It was impossible, in the nature of man, that five supreme rulers should long act with harmony. In its executorial efficiency, this system bore some resemblance to the constitution of 1789; in its two councils, it manifested a tendency to surpass the democracy royal.

THIS year, the son of the late king, styled by the royalists Lewis XVII. died in the temple; and the king's brother, now representative of the house of Bourbon, assumed the title of Lewis XVIII.

CHAP. LVI.

Effects of the French successes upon other powers.—The grand duke of Tuscany and the king of Sweden acknowledge the French republic.—Character and views of the king of Prussia.—After receiving a subsidy from England, he abandons the alliance—and concludes a peace with France.—Spain compelled to receive peace from France.—German princes.—Extensive dominion of the French republic.—Renewal of the war in La Vendee.—The French emigrants in England fancy and represent royalism to prevail in France—plan of cooperation with the royalists submitted to ministers—scheme adopted by them—expedition to Quiberon—disastrous issue of.—Requisition from Holland.—The French armies reduce the fortress of Luxemburg, and complete the conquest of Belgium.—Campaign upon the Rhine—indecisive.—Armistice of three months.—Naval operations.—Engagement of admiral Cornwallis with a much superior French force—by a stratagem he impels the enemy to fly.—Lord Bridport defeats the French fleet off L'Orient, and captures their largest ships.—Attempt of the French to recover their losses in the West Indies.—War in Jamaica with the Maroon negroes.—Admiral Hotham defeats the French off Corsica.—Admiral Elphinstone reduces the cape of Good Hope.—Internal affairs of France.—Ambitious views of the leaders of the convention.—Efforts of Napoleone Bonaparte, a young Corsican officer, excite general admiration.—The moderates at length prevail.

THE successes of the French struck all Europe with astonishment; and it was evident, that the confederacy must be inefficient, without greater union of design, concert of counsels, and vigour of conduct. Some of the princes had avowed, that their object was the restoration of monarchy; but separate and private views had interfered with the successful prosecution of this purpose. It

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Effects of
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The grand duke of Tuscany and the king of Sweden, acknowledge the French republic.

Character and views of the king of Prussia.

is probable, that every sovereign would have preferred, in so very powerful a nation, ancient establishment to revolution. The effects and relations of the one were ascertained ; of the other, could not be defined or comprehended. The French monarchy, when vigilantly watched, had been found compatible with the security of other countries : the principle of the new system was universal change. Hitherto no potentate had acknowledged the French republic, which they either hoped or supposed must yield to so numerous and strong an alliance ; but the extraordinary progress of the Gallic armies altered their opinions and policy : reasoning from operations and events, instead of combining them with their causes, several princes conceived, that since the efforts of the confederates, planned and directed as they were, had been unsuccessful, no exertions could avail. Convinced of the stability of the revolutionary scheme, sovereigns now began to deprecate the anger and court the friendship of such a mighty people. To the great surprise of politicians, the emperor's brother, the grand duke of Tuscany, first acknowledged the French republic, concluded peace, sent the count de Carletti as minister to Paris ; and, by a formal treaty, breaking his engagement with the coalition, promised in future to observe the strictest neutrality. One crowned head soon followed the example of this prince ; the regent of Sweden, in the name of his nephew, sent the baron de Staal to Paris ; and that ambassador appeared in the convention, and assured the French nation of the friendship, which the court of Stockholm entertained for the republic.

THE king of Prussia, for two years, had been a very cold and inefficient ally : his jealousy of Austria had absorbed his apprehensions from France ; and the participation of Polish spoils engaged him much more powerfully than the restoration of monarchy. Prematurely despairing to be able to reinstate the heir of the Bourbons on the throne of France, he became disgusted with the war, and was not displeased that the hereditary rival of his family was weakened ; and did not reflect, that the power which overwhelmed the Netherlands, and humbled Austria, was extending her means of eventually reducing Prussia. But examiners of conduct, who derive the

measures and actions of princes, uniformly, from public policy, are apt to form very erroneous conclusions. Private passions and personal habits influence the counsels of kings. Frederic William was distinguished for his love of pleasure; and, though constitutionally brave, and occasionally active, a leading feature in his character was that indolence which is so usual a companion or follower of sensual indulgence.^k Like his uncle, he was rapacious, but from very different views: the great Frederic sought and acquired territories and other possessions, for the aggrandizement and melioration of Prussia; his nephew appears to have desired the property of others, much more for the purposes of individual gratification. The extravagance that rarely fails to attend luxurious sensuality, had drained the coffers which the policy and economy of his predecessor had so very fully replenished. The plunder of Poland, and the sums which he received from England for making a promise that he did not intend to perform, removed his pecuniary difficulties, and created a new fund for pleasurable enjoyment: he could now revel in his seraglio without any apprehension of fiscal embarrassments. These circumstances and considerations, in the opinion of persons thoroughly acquainted with the disposition and private life of Frederic William, afforded an additional weight to the political reasons by which he was determined to separate himself from the alliance. "The king of Prussia (says Segur),^l contented with his new acquisitions in Poland, and disgusted with the war, forgot, in the arms of his mistresses, his former objects, his recent defeats, the danger of the empire, the dispute of kings, and the interests of his sister the princess of Orange."

DURING the year 1794, a negotiation was opened between France and Prussia; and, in April 1795, peace was concluded. The articles of this treaty were entirely favourable to France; such, indeed, was the temper, as well as the situation of the French at this time, that no other would have been admitted. The Prussian territo-

^k This account is strongly supported by Segur; a man of penetration, who appears to have thoroughly comprehended the character of Frederic William. See vol. iii. chap. xiii.

^l Vol. iii. p. 206.

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After receiving a subsidy from England, he abandons the alliance, and concludes a peace with France.

Spain compelled to receive peace from France.

German princes.

ries on the left bank of the Rhine were ceded to France, and those only on the right restored to Prussia. The regulations for the internal settlement of the countries which were thus ceded, were referred, for final discussion, to the period of a general peace between France and Germany. It was agreed, that a cessation of hostilities should take place, and continue in the north of Germany, which, henceforth, should be considered as neutral ground; and that those princes whose dominions lay on the right side of the Rhine, should be entitled to make proposals to France, and to be favourably treated; in behalf of whom, the king of Prussia should interpose his good offices.^m Having thus accomplished, by policy, peace with Prussia, the next object of France was, to compel Spain to withdraw from the confederacy. The war of the republicans with that country had been uniformly successful. Their armies had surmounted the defiles of the Pyrennées, hovered over northern Spain, and threatened to penetrate into the heart of the country, and advance to Madrid. The king of Spain saw no expedient to save himself from ruin, but the conclusion of peace. All resources had been exhausted; the nobility, the gentry, the clergy, the monastic orders, had all contributed; the orders of knighthood, which have large possessions in Spain, had lately made liberal donations to government, besides a tax, laid on their revenues, of eight per cent." No class had been remiss in pecuniary assistance to the state; but want of personal spirit, or discontent at the measures pursued by the ministry, seemed to pervade the mass of the nation. In such a situation, the court of Madrid formed a resolution to withdraw from the confederacy. Peace was accordingly concluded, agreeably to the dictation of France. The conditions were, that France should restore to Spain all her conquests in that kingdom, and that Spain should cede to France all its part of the island of Hispaniola in the West Indies; together with all the artillery and military stores deposited in that colony. France also concluded peace with the greater number of the German princes. Holland was now formed into a democratic republic, on

^m See Otridge's Annual Register, p. 62.

ⁿ Ibid. p. 60.

the model of France; and the power and wealth of these provinces was henceforward entirely at the disposal of the French republic. "Never (as the able author^o of "the Annual Register" observes) since the days of Charlemagne, had the empire of France extended over so many regions and people." A list of recent conquests was printed, and affixed to a tablet which was hung in the hall of the convention, and copies of it were sent to the armies, together with an enumeration of the victories by which these acquisitions were obtained. They consisted of the ten provinces of the Austrian Netherlands; the seven united provinces; the bishoprics of Liege, Worms, and Spire; the electorate of Treves, Cologne, and Mentz; the dutchy of Deux Ponts; the palatinate; the dutchies of Juliers and Cleves. These accessions were all rich, fertile, and populous countries; abounding with men as zealous in their cause as the French themselves. On the south side of France, their conquests were, the dutchy of Savoy, with the principalities of Nice and Monaco in Italy. The population of all these countries was estimated at thirteen millions; which, added to the twenty-four millions contained in France, constituted a mass of thirty-seven millions, inhabiting the centre of Europe, and capable, by that position alone, if united under one government, to defy the enmity of all their neighbours; to exercise an influence amounting almost to universal sovereignty.^q So completely did the pressure of the confederacy drive the French nation to military enthusi-

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Extensive
dominion
of the
French
republic.

^o Generally believed to be Dr. William Thompson. See life of that gentleman in Philips's Public Characters, for 1803. ^p Otridge's.

^q The means by which they arrived at such an extent of power, the French exhibited in the following statement. In the space of seventeen months, they had won twenty-seven battles, and been victorious in one hundred and twenty actions of less note. They had taken one hundred and sixteen strong cities and fortified places; but what redounded chiefly to the reputation of the French, these successes had been obtained over the best disciplined armies of Europe, elated with their past triumphs over warlike enemies; and commanded by generals of consummate experience, and the most dazzling reputation. Their own armies, in the commencement of the contest, consisted of officers and soldiers, few of whom had seen service, and their commanders were very far from eminent in their profession. With these disadvantages, they resolutely ventured to face the tremendous combination formed against them; and in less than twelve months, from acting on the defensive, they assaulted their enemies in every direction, and struck them every where with so much terror, that several of them were meditating a retreat from the field of action, and total secession from the confederacy, by uniting with which they had sustained so many losses. See Otridge's Annual Register, for 1795, p. 54.

and the most remarkable effects of that sentiment, and the energy of this extraordinary effort, were the result of a man who acted without

the aid of a monarch or a government. The republicans still prevailed in La Vendee, and the English were in new revolt. The English and French during this campaign were, entirely without military resources, and in contending with their remaining enemies, Britain and Austria, to act on the one hand against the naval efforts of England, and on the other against the military force of the emperor. It was a policy which common sense dictates to the republicans, to form a powerful confederacy, they did not attempt to attack its members separately and success was impossible; and where negotiation was not employed force. Aware that against the French efforts would be much more effectual than against England, they directed their principal exertions against their mortal enemy. Luxemburg only remained in the possession of the Germans, on the left bank of the Rhine. The republicans proposed to reduce that fortress afterwards, passing the Rhine, to make Germany a state of war, and to press forward in Italy. Two armies were destined for the operations on the Rhine, the first was commanded by Pichegru and Jourdain. A considerable force was also sent against the insurgents, the Vendean and Chouans, and commanded by Charrette. Large supplies of money sent from Britain, contributed to increase the number; and an expedition was undertaken from Britain, to cooperate with the French loyalists. Though this armament consisted chiefly of emigrants, the plan of operations was by no means conformable to their wishes and views. Certain emigrants represented to our ministers, that La Vendee and its neighbourhood were far from being the sole scenes of French loyalty: that in Guienne, Languedoc, Provence, Lyonnais, and Alsace, there were numerous bodies attached to monarchy. They proposed a grand scheme of connected cooperation, by an expedition in six divisions, in

The proposed plan of operations, and the correspondence with which it was accompanied, was sent to the committee of public safety, and to the emigrant noblemen of the Convention, who were all opposed to it.

the maritime parts to consist chiefly of English, and in the inland of Austrian, invaders. The votaries of Mr. Burke's sentiments and ideas eagerly seconded this proposition; but that part of the ministry which, to use the political language of latter times, was rather anti-gallican than anti-jacobin, which was more intent on the annoyance of French power, than the dictation of French government, was averse to so expensive and weighty an undertaking. Less ardent for the restoration of monarchy, they did not apprehend, that the numbers and force of its friends was nearly so great as conceived in the sanguine hopes of the emigrants and Burkites. These observed, that if any attempt was made, it must be with a view to be effectual; that a small equipment would answer no useful purpose; a scanty force could not expect to prevail against the numerous hordes of republicans; and it would be better not to send any expedition, than to send a handful, which, instead of really aiding the loyalists, would only stimulate them to certain destruction. The majority of the cabinet, however, appear to have intended merely a diversion, to weaken the efforts of the republicans in other quarters: to the reestablishment of monarchy, the preparations were so totally inadequate, that it is morally certain they could not be designed for that purpose.

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1795.
Plan of co-
operation
with the
royalists
submitted
to minis-
ters:

scheme
adopted by
them.

IN the beginning of June, the expedition sailed to the southern coast of Brittany; and as the Vendéans possessed no seaport to afford their friends a landing, the squadron proceeded to the bay of Quiberon. Here a body of about three thousand men landed on the 27th, and dispersed a small number of republicans. They besieged and took a fort garrisoned by six hundred men, and prepared to march farther into the country. A considerable number joined the expedition, and a great quantity of arms had been sent; thence it was fondly expected, that an army would be formed in a short time, capable of facing the republican troops in the neighbourhood. Having increased to about twelve thousand men, they advanced up the country, and after gaining several skirmishes, attacking a large body of republican troops, they were obliged to retreat. Meanwhile, Hoche having collected a numerous army, proceeded against the emigrant forces; a

Expedi-
tion to
Quiberon.

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1795.
Disastrous
issue of

bloody battle ensued, and was followed by a decisive victory on the side of the republicans; scarcely three thousand escaped to their ships. The chiefs of the *Chouans* for several months carried on a desultory war, were at length overpowered by the republican armies, and perished as rebels against the government which they had so lately acknowledged. The unfortunate emigrants captured on this disastrous expedition were also treated as rebels, and suffered on the scaffold. Such was the melancholy termination of an expedition, from which no distant success could reasonably be expected. In consequence, however, the force of the enemy, this undertaking was not without a considerable influence on the events of the campaign.

The expectation of exhausting the French finances, proves groundless. The revolutionists find new resources in the conquered countries. Requisition from Holland.

The French armies reduce the fortress of Luxemburg, and complete the conquest of Belgium.

Those statesmen who supposed that by the continuance of the war the French would exhaust their resources, were in the event proved to be erroneous reasoners. The campaign carried on with the energy which they exerted, and successful beyond all records of history, was to them an instrument of acquisition: in the spoils of conquered countries they found their ways and means: Holland and Belgium supplied the treasury of France. The Austrian Netherlands were formally incorporated with the French republic; and to render this accession complete, they besieged Luxemburg. With this operation they opened the campaign; the garrison, though strong, yet being completely invested, and finding that no succours could approach, on the seventeenth of June capitulated. The French had only one place more to reduce, in order to compass that object which was to crown their military operations. This was, to make a conquest of the strong and important city of Mentz; by the acquisition of which they would regain the ancient boundary between Germany and Gaul, the river Rhine. But the situation of Mentz was extremely strong, and they found it necessary to convert the siege into a blockade. During the early part of

^a This conversion of the property of the conquered to the use of the conquerors has often been ascribed to jacobinism; but the slightest attention to history proves, that both the principle and practice are not new, but as old as the records of war and plunder. One ingredient in their system differed from Grecian and Roman plunder, a spirit of proselytism. But that spirit was not peculiar to the French plunderers; the Spaniards in Mexico and Peru were almost as eager to convert as to rob, the unoffending Indians.

the campaign, the French armies had been much less active than was expected from the successes of the former year. Their inaction, however, really arose from those very successes. Their victories, splendid and momentous as they were, had been earned by great profusion of lives; and though their armies were continually supplied with recruits, it required time to inure those to discipline. Though they might replace the numbers they were continually losing, they could not supply their places with an equal proportion of good soldiers. The French officers and commanders were fully aware of this deficiency, and, for this reason, were become less adventurous and enterprising. Besides, a considerable part of the republican force was employed against the revolvers. The operations upon the Rhine were therefore, on the whole, indecisive and unimportant, compared with the events of the former year. It was not till the month of August, that Jourdain crossed the Rhine: he captured Dusseldorf, and compelled the Austrians to retreat. Pichegru with his army followed a few days after, and having reduced Mannheim, occupied a position on the right bank, which intercepted the Austrian armies on the north and south of the Main, respectively commanded by generals Clairfait and Wurmser. A division of his army having attacked the Austrians with the usual impetuosity, put them to the route. But the spirit of plunder was so predominant among the French, that as soon as they had defeated this part of Wurmser's army, they dispersed on all sides in quest of pillage. The Austrian cavalry, informed of their disorder, returning, completely surprised and defeated the plunderers, and compelled them to make a precipitate retreat. Clairfait meanwhile advanced upon Jourdain's army, which had invested Mentz from the right bank of the Rhine, attacked and defeated its rear, and took a large quantity of cannon destined for the siege; and after successive victories, his adversary compelled the Austrian to recross the Rhine. Pichegru also found the same retrograde movement necessary: the two Austrian armies, now enabled to form a junction, crossed the Rhine, obliged the republicans to raise the siege of Mentz, and reconquered the palatinate and most of the countries between the Rhine and the

Campaign
upon the
Rhine in-
decisive.

1795
1795
1795

Armistice
of three
months.

Naval operations.

Engagement of
admiral Cornwallis
with a
much superior
French force.

By a stratagem he
impels the
enemy to
fly.

Moselle. Alarmed at their progress, Jourdain collected all the troops that were stationed in the proximity of the Rhine, and by forced marches reached, in a short time, the scene of action. United with Pichegru, he had the good fortune to put a stop to the rapid career of the Austrians. The successes of the Germans encouraged them to project the siege of Luxemburg, but the vigorous assistance of the republicans prevented them from advancing so far. After various sharp conflicts, they were obliged to recross the Rhine. Meanwhile, on the right bank of the Rhine they were employed in besieging Manheim, which a strong garrison of French so vigorously defended, that it held out till the end of November, when it yielded to the Austrians. The campaign concluded by common consent of the hostile generals, who agreed to a suspension of arms for three months, which was ratified by the respective powers; and the armies of both parties withdrew into winter quarters. The same languor marked the operations in Italy; the French maintained their former acquisitions, but made no farther progress. The continental campaign of 1795 was, indeed, on the whole inefficient. The French however had subdued the revolters, and acquired Luxemburg. The French, at sea, confined themselves to defensive efforts against our navy, and depredations on our trade.

THE naval operations of Britain were necessarily much less important than in the former year, against an enemy that would not face them with any considerable force. They were not, however, altogether deficient in brilliancy. Admiral Cornwallis had, this summer, been stationed on the west coast of France, to intercept the enemy's trade, and to correspond with La Vendee: on the 16th of June, having only five ships of the line, he met off Belleisle thirteen French ships of the line. Against a force so greatly superior he kept a running fight for the whole of the next day, without suffering the enemy to gain the smallest advantage. At length his repeating frigate, to deceive the French, threw out a signal that a large British squadron was in sight. This ingenious stratagem impelled the republicans to betake themselves to a precipitate flight. The Gallic squadron, six days after, fell in

with lord Bridport, who defeated them, and took three of their largest ships, off port L'Orient.

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IN the West Indies, the French formed a project of recovering the islands which had been ceded to the English after former wars. To promote this purpose, they sent emissaries to St. Lucie, St. Vincents, Grenada, and Dominica, who had considerable success: St. Lucie was reduced through the efforts of the insurgents; and the three others with difficulty preserved. The French also reduced St. Eustatius, retook the island of Guadaloupe, and the fort of Tiberon in St. Domingo. In Jamaica, a war arose between the British and the Maroon Indians, a very hostile and dangerous tribe, scattered in the woods, and noted for robbery and murder. The militia and soldiers turning out, completely subdued these savages; and to trace the fugitives employed bloodhounds; the island was cleared of these marauders; the remainder of whom was transported to Upper Canada.

1795.
Lord Bridport defeats the French fleet off L'Orient, and captures their largest ships.
Attempt of the French to recover their losses in the West Indies.
War in Jamaica with the Maroon negroes.

IN the Mediterranean, admiral Hotham defeated the French off Corsica; and on the coast of Africa, admiral Elphinstone captured the cape of Good Hope and a Dutch fleet. From the time that Holland became a dependency of France, an order was issued for seizing all the Dutch ships in British ports; and also letters of marque and reprisal were granted against the Batavian republic. Such are the chief events of the third year of the war in which Great Britain was engaged against the French republic.

Admiral Hotham defeats the French off Corsica.
Admiral Elphinstone reduces the cape of Good Hope.

THE internal proceedings of the French republicans were at this time more active and energetic than the operations of their armies. Having formed the new constitution on the overthrow of the terrible system, the national convention was occupied in preparing for its practical commencement, and in endeavouring to destroy anarchy, did not lose sight of ambition. Before they surrendered their authority into the hands of the nation, they made provision for its renewal. They passed a decree, which enjoined the electoral bodies to choose two-thirds of the deputies of the nation that were to be returned on this occasion, out of the members of the present convention; and ordained, that in default of an election of those two-thirds in the manner prescribed, the convention should

Internal affairs of France.

Ambitious views of the leaders of the convention.

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Efforts of
Napoleone
Bonaparte,
a young
Corsican
officer, ex-
cite gene-
ral admira-
tion.

supply the vacancies themselves. The constitution, and these decrees, were formally transmitted to the primary assemblies. These acts were by many considered as violations of the undoubted privileges of the people, and attempts to perpetuate their own power against the sense of their constituents. The Parisians declared, that henceforth the convention had forfeited all title to any farther obedience. The primary assemblies in the city having met by their own appointment, in defiance of the convention, insisted that they had chosen their electors, and that these being the direct representatives of the people, possessed a right to consult together as soon as they judged it necessary. The convention, in order to terrify the refractory, employed a military force to disperse this assembly of Parisians. The Parisians forbore at that time opposing the soldiers of the convention, but continued to inveigh against their designs. Both parties became inflamed with the greatest rage. After warm and violent contests of reasoning, they prepared to have recourse to force. On the 4th of October, the Parisian troops proceeded against the soldiers of their antagonists: a conflict taking place, was fought with the greatest courage and ardour, when the skill and enterprise of a young Corsican gave a decisive victory to the conventional troops. The officer in question was Napoleone Bonaparte, who on this the first opportunity of exerting his talents in military command, attracted the high admiration both of those for whom, and against whom it was employed. The numbers that fell did not exceed a thousand; and a great multitude was preparing from different quarters to join the troops of the Parisians, but were overawed by the success of the opposite party. The metropolis was subjected to the power of the convention, which made a very severe use of the victory, punished, without mercy the Parisian insurgents; and in the apprehension of many of the more moderate republicans were about to revive the system of terror. The jacobins began to regain an ascendancy in an assembly whose chief objects, like those of Robespierre, appeared to be uncontrolled dominion. They procured a commission to be appointed, consisting of five persons, who were empowered to consult together what

measures were proper to be adopted in order to save the country. Such an arbitrary assumption of power alarmed all France : men were apprehensive that the days of Robespierre were about to be revived : but the circumstances were changed : the dread of foreign enemies being removed, the moderate republicans and constitutionalists were too numerous and powerful to submit to this new project of despotism. During the month of October, these contests were carried on with great warmth, and affairs appeared drawing to some important crisis ; but they terminated favourably to the prospect of returning order. In the convention itself, the ablest men were among the moderates ; and, though in a temporary minority, soon found means to prevail over a considerable number of the others, and at length to overbalance the violent and jacobinical junto. It was proposed, in the name of the nation, that the commission of five should instantly be suppressed, and that the constitution decreed by the acceptance of the people should take place, and the convention be dissolved on the day appointed ; and the moderate party being now predominant, these propositions were carried. The violent faction, aware of the odiousness of their conduct, and the decay of their power, endeavoured, by promoting or seconding popular acts, to regain the public favour. On the 26th of October, this celebrated convention dissolved itself, after having sitten upwards of three years ; and, in governing France, produced effects more momentous to Europe than any which had taken place for several centuries. Their character, operations, and efficiency, were astonishing, and surpassed all the experience and records of history. Their chief collective characteristic was promptitude of intellectual and active powers, which discovered and called into effectual operation all the faculties and resources of the country : and made every species of inanimate and rational beings engines for compassing their ends. Exempt themselves from all moral and religious restraints, they destroyed or suppressed these principles in others, in order to insure their instrumentality ; in all qualities and means, they regarded merely efficacy ; and in seeking their objects, they simply employed sagacity, invention, courage,

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The moderates at length prevail.

Dissolution of the convention,

and character.

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resolution, and expedition. Genius, vigour of mind, indefatigable and rapid exertion, moving directly on to their end, and totally regardless of conscience, and of all the laws of God and man, making no account of human happiness or misery, may certainly do numberless acts in a private station, which must surprise all who, with equal power, have not thrown off the fetters of piety and virtue. Enormous however as their crimes might be, they were mixed with most extraordinary efforts, brilliant actions, and astonishing success against the enemies of their country. Never had a government greater obstacles to surmount; internal dissensions that rose to rebellion, extensive, powerful, and formidable; a confederacy of nations, two of which sent forth armies, that in numbers, courage, discipline, and military skill, were equal to the Roman legions; and assisted by other states no less brave and hardy; with a kingdom which commanded the fountains of silver and of gold; had been once the rival of France herself, and, of continental powers, was still the second in naval greatness: but, beyond all, an insular empire, which united the genius of Greece, with the persevering valour and constancy of Rome; the opulence of Carthage and Persia; military prowess superior to any heroes of modern Europe,^t and a maritime force which far surpassed any related in the annals of mankind. Such a combination of resources and warriors never before had one state to oppose. Yet did the French convention, with the executive governments which it successively created, not only resist their immense efforts, by crushing internal revolt, and driving the enemy from their frontiers, but acquired accessions of territory more extensive than any which have been procured by conquest in modern Europe; whose fertility, industry, skill, riches, and the means of force, far surpassed any conquest achieved by the Romans during half a century of their most warlike history. If in compassing objects of such magnitude, they were guilty of many enormities; they possessed most uniformly, and

^t If this should be thought an unfounded assertion, it must be by those who do not recollect the pitched battles between the British and any opponents, from Cressy to Alexandria: they never were beaten by equal, or nearly equal, troops, and very rarely by much superior numbers.

signally exerted, one quality, without which the highest intellectual and moral excellencies avail little, in the conductors of momentous and dangerous wars, or any other arduous situations in active life :—this was ENERGY,^a constant in object, rapid in exertion, and decisive in effect.

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^a This quality no observer of their conduct more explicitly and fully allows, than one author, who will never be accused of partiality in favour of the French revolutionists. See Burke on Regicide Peace; and his other writings concerning the French revolution, subsequent to the commencement of the war.

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Britain.—Many who had approved of the war, tire of its continuance—are disappointed in its results—they conceive the advantages gained do not balance the loss incurred.—Scarcity and dearth of provisions.—Discontents.—Active endeavours of the innovating societies.—Multiplication of lecturers—who represent wars as ministerial jobs for plundering the people.—Frequency of seditious meetings.—Meetings of the corresponding society at Chalk farm and Copenhagen house.—Abuse of government.—Behaviour of the mob to the king on his way to and from parliament—a bullet is shot into the king's coach.—Indignation of the public.—Proclamations.—Proceedings of parliament.—Lord Grenville introduces a bill for the safety of his majesty's person—principle and details—arguments against it—for it.—Mr. Pitt's bill for preventing seditious meetings—objects and provisions of—arguments against it.—Mr. Fox reprobates the bills—exhibits the rights of the people to state their grievances—declares the bills intended to prevent the exercise of that right—and to shield ministers—he alleges, they subvert constitutional freedom.—Active efforts of him and his coadjutors both in and out of parliament.—Petitions.—Arguments for Mr. Pitt's bill—required by the circumstances of the times—somewhat modified, both pass into laws.—Impartial view of the new acts.—Restrictions on the freedom of the press.—Mr. Pitt apprehended to undervalue literary effort.—Majority of the literary class inimical to his administration.—Writers represent the series of his measures as more conducive to the power of the crown than the rights of the people.—State of ministerial popularity.—Ministers intimate his majesty's disposition to open a negotiation for peace—remarks of Mr. Fox on this declaration.—The conduct of the war is severely censured.—Supplies—immense loan.—The taxes

financially judicious, laid on the luxuries or conveniences, and not the necessities of life.—Able speech of earl Moira on revenue.—Proposed remonstrance of opposition.—Dissolution of parliament.

THE war had been begun with the approbation, and even applause, of a very great majority of the British nation; and, during the first campaign, these sentiments continued to prevail: but the distresses of our army in Holland, and the apparent hopelessness of the contest at the expiration of the second, began to damp their eagerness. When a third campaign was concluded, many of the former promoters of war conceived, that the exertions of three years had not brought Britain any nearer the purpose of hostilities, than they were at its commencement, and now became tired of its continuance. Its expenses retrenching the comforts of life, came home to their feelings: like the bulk of mankind, judging from the event, they began to think that the war must have been wrong in the outset, which in its progress had so totally disappointed their expectation; at any rate, that it must be unwise in the continuance, when, in their apprehensions, it produced no benefit to balance the very heavy loss. In addition to the pressure of the war, a scarcity prevailed throughout the kingdom, and was woefully felt by the poorer sort, several of whom perished for want. The means of procuring sustenance were narrowed from various causes; but the discontented attributed this evil to the war; and the sufferers, through defect of employment, were ready enough to believe those who represented all the calamities that affected the nation, as proceeding chiefly, if not solely, from the hostilities. Multitudes, not only of the lower, but even the middling classes, very ardently desired peace, and began to cherish displeasure against ministers for not endeavouring to procure that blessing to the country. The members of the innovating societies were now extremely bold and active: the acquittals, at the trials for high treason, had swelled their exultation, and inspired their courage. They regarded the ministers as a junto, who had desired and plotted against them unjust death, without the power of perpe-

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Britain.—
Many who
had approved
of the
war, tire of
its continu-
ance:

are disap-
pointed in
its results:
they con-
ceive the
advantages
gained do
not balance
the loss
incurred.

Scarcity
and dear-
ness of
provisions.
Discon-
tents.

Active en-
deavours
of the in-
novating
societies.

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Multipli-
cation of
lecturers,

who repre-
sent wars
as ministe-
rial jobs
for plun-
dering the
people.

Frequency
of seditious
meetings.

Meetings
of the cor-
responding
society at
Chalk
farm and
Copenha-
gen house.

Abuse of
govern-
ment.

trating their designs. The most zealous democrats eagerly stimulated disaffection to government. Declamatory lecturers multiplied in the metropolis; the demagogues did not confine themselves to the topics which had been so often agitated in democratic societies, addressed to their own peculiar cast; but watched the tone of dissatisfaction beginning to be heard among persons who were well affected to the constitution of their country; and pointed their invectives and sarcasms, not merely against what they called the aristocratic principles and objects of the war, but what came much more home to the hearts of the people, its effects on their purses and means of livelihood. Lecturers,^u both stationary and itinerant, represented wars, and beyond them all, this war, as contrived by courts and ministers, to afford them pretexts for plundering the people, that they and their adherents might wallow in luxury; while the multitude, by whose hard earnings their profusion was supported, were stinted in the necessaries of life. These inflammatory arts operating on minds already sore with the pressure of the war and scarcity, brought many loyal and constitutional, though not considerate and discriminating men, into the vortex of discontent. A multiplicity of publications, periodical and occasional, strongly forwarded the same purposes; but the most pointed and effectually conducive to aversion against the present government, were the lectural and political conventicles which abounded in 1795, beyond all former periods; the private cabals of innovating associators, and the numerous public meetings to which these gave rise. The corresponding society again meet at Chalk farm and other places, repeatedly in the course of the summer and autumn. A meeting, held at Copenhagen house near Islington, of these conventions, was the most remarkable. The numbers that attended, either through zeal in the cause, or through curiosity, were computed at about fifty thousand. Some very daring addresses were made to the multitude; the con-

^u The author had the curiosity to go to hear some of the once noted John Thelwal's effusions, and also to read a certain production of his, styled, 'The Tribune'; he recollects, that the declamation mentioned in the text, constituted the substance of both.

duct of ministers was arraigned in the most unqualified language; and a remonstrance to the king, on the necessity of peace, and a reform in parliament, was universally adopted. The chief abettors of the proceedings against government, were apprehended to be emissaries from France,^x who, though natives of Great Britain or Ireland, had thrown off all attachment to their country, and were become its most violent and rancorous enemies. The difficulty of detecting individuals connected with our foes, enabled them to assume the appearance of patriotism, and to delude with facility the majority of their hearers into a persuasion, that they spoke and acted from principle, and had no other intention than to expose abuses, and to induce the people to assert their rights.^y The increasing frequency of those meetings, and the growing audaciousness of their directors, called for preventive measures.

THE internal state of the kingdom, as well as its foreign relations, determined his majesty to call his parliament together at an earlier period than usual. It accordingly assembled on the 29th of October; a memorable day, on account of the events which it witnessed, and the consequences which ensued. A report had been spread, that an immense multitude of discontented people had agreed to take this opportunity of manifesting their sentiments to the king in person. This of course excited the curiosity of the public, and the park was crowded in a manner unprecedented since his majesty's accession to the throne. In his way to the house of lords through the park, his coach was surrounded on every side, by persons of all descriptions, demanding peace,^z and the dismissal of Mr. Pitt. Some voices were even heard, exclaiming, "No king;" and stones were thrown at the state coach as it drew near to the horse guards. In passing through palace yard, one of the windows was broken it was said, by a bullet discharged from an air gun. These outrages were repeated on the king's return from parlia-

Behaviour
of the mob
to the king,
in his way
to and from
parliament.

A bullet is
shot into
the king's
coach.

x Annual Register, 1796, chap. i. y Annual Register, 1796, chap. i.

z First in a melancholy, but soon after a menacing tone. As his majesty's equipage turned towards the horse guards, the populace were become very insolent. His majesty displayed his usual magnanimity, and conversed with the lords without appearing to notice the disposition to riot. So far I was an eye witness; but apprehending a tumult, I then left the park.

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1795.

Indignation
of the
public.Proclama-
tion.Proceed-
ings of par-
liament.Lord Gren-
ville intro-
duces a bill
for the safe-
ty of his
majesty's
person.Principles
and details.

ment, and he narrowly escaped the fury of the populace in his way back from St. James's palace to Buckingham house.

EVERY loyal and patriotic Britain felt with indignation the unmerited insult offered to his sovereign ; and saw the necessity of restraining the rebellious spirit which such attempts indicated. A proclamation was published offering a large pecuniary reward for the discovery of the perpetrators ; and also stating, that previously to the opening of parliament, a meeting had been held in the vicinity of the metropolis, where inflammatory speeches were made, and divers means used to sow discontent and excite seditious proceedings ; requiring all magistrates and other well affected subjects to exert themselves in preventing and suppressing all unlawful meetings, and the disseminating of seditious writings.

A CONFERENCE was held between the two houses as soon as his majesty had withdrawn, and witnesses were examined in relation to the outrages that had been committed. Their testimony was communicated to the commons, and both houses unanimously concurred in the addresses which were proposed. It was by no means deemed sufficient to investigate past guilt, and testify abhorrence of its treasonable enormity ; it was necessary to prevent the recurrence of such dangerous wickedness.

To secure his majesty against future effects of so disloyal and unconstitutional a spirit, lord Grenville proposed a bill, entitled, " An act for the safety and preservation of " his majesty's person and government against treasonable " and seditious practices and attempts." This law consisted of two parts ; the first made a very momentous change, and extension of the crime of treason : it declared the commission, by deed, or by words spoken, written, or printed, or in any other open manner, or any act *tending* to the imprisonment, deposition, or death of the king, or his heirs and successors, a conspiracy to levy war, in order to overawe the parliament, and to effect a change of counsels, or to instigate any foreigner or stranger by force to invade any of the king's dominions, to be high treason, during the king's natural life, and till the end of the next session of parliament, after the demise of the crown. The

second part extended the crime, and aggravated the punishment, of sedition : to excite dislike, and hatred to the person of the king, or to the persons of his heirs and successors, or to the government and constitution of this realm as by law established, by deed, by advised speech, or by words written or printed, was, for the first offence, rendered liable to the penalties incurred by the commission of a high misdemeanor, and, for the second, to the usual punishments prescribed by law, or to transportation for not more than seven years, at the discretion of the court. "The provisions (lord Grenville said) were conformable to the principles admitted in the acts of Elizabeth, and Charles II. and were as similar as circumstances would permit. Difficulties having arisen in the construction of the laws relating to treason, already in force, the intent of this bill was to explain and fix the meaning of those laws. It would not prohibit any act allowed to be legal, but only provide a more suitable punishment according to the degree of criminality, than that which was ordained by the laws now in force ; as in various cases, notwithstanding criminality was evidently proved, an opposite law had not been enacted." This bill was strongly opposed, though but by a very small number in the house of peers. Its most active impugners were the duke of Bedford and the earl of Lauderdale. These lords expressed the utmost horror of the daring outrage which had been committed against his majesty ; but alleged, that the bill did not tend to procure more safety to the person of the sovereign than the laws that already existed ; there was no sufficient proof that the outrages committed were connected with the meetings to which they were attributed : the present law was evidently an innovation in the constitution, and an abridgment of the liberty of the subject : it opened a dangerous latitude for constructive treason, one of the most pernicious instruments of tyrannical government. One of the strongest bulwarks of our freedom was the treason law of Edward III. by which, accurate definition of crime fenced the liberties and lives of English subjects against the capricious displeasure, or arbitrary designs, of a king or his ministers. This law had guarded former monarchs through barbarous ages and periods of turbulence and vio-

arguments
against it :

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dispersion by a magistrate, after reading a specific proclamation; unless the assembly were collected by a public advertisement, signed by seven resident householders, and a true copy of it, subscribed by them, were left with the publisher, who, under a penalty of fifty pounds, must deliver it to any justice of the peace by whom it should be demanded. It farther provided, that disobedience for more than one hour to the magistrate's order to disperse, should subject any individual, of a number above twelve, to the punishment of death; and even an assembly held by regular advertisement, in the same manner, and with the same risk to the disobedient, might be dispersed, if any measure subversive of the constitution, or tending to incite the people to hatred, or dislike, or contempt to the royal family, or of the parliament, were proposed. To prevent certain political lecturers from gaining a livelihood by preaching sedition, a house opened for any political discussion, without a license, was to incur a penalty of a hundred pounds.

arguments
against it.

Mr. Fox
reprobates
the bill,

exhibit the
rights of
the people
to state
their grie-
vances,

MR. FOX was the first that rose to impugn this bill. There was, he alleged, no evidence but the assertions of ministers, that the outrages, which he reprobated as much as any man, arose from the meetings described in the bill. But if the closest chain of connexion could have been traced between certain meetings, and the attack upon our sovereign, the abuse did not justify the proscription of the rights of the people. Public discussion on national subjects, was not only legal, but the very life of the English constitution: and without these no liberty could subsist. The people had an unalienable right to deliberate on their grievances, and to demand redress from the legislature; but by this bill were forbidden to exercise those rights without the attendance of a magistrate, and previous notice to him of their intention. A PERSON APPOINTED BY GOVERNMENT was empowered to arrest any one present, whose words he might think proper to call sedition, and and even to dissolve the meeting at his own pleasure. Behold the state of a free Englishman: before he can discuss any topic which involves his liberty, or his rights, he is to send to a magistrate, who is to attend the discussion; that magistrate cannot prevent the meeting, but he can

prevent their speaking, because he can allege that what is said has a tendency to disturb the peace of the kingdom. Can a meeting, under such restrictions, be called a meeting of free people? Is it possible to make the people of this country believe that the plan is any thing but a total annihilation of their liberty? If the people's complaints were groundless, the less they were noticed the sooner they could cease, as false surmises would very soon be discovered and lose their effect; but, if well founded, the efforts made to repress them must terminate either in a base-minded submission of the people, or in a resistance fatal to their rulers as well as to themselves. Revolutions were not owing to popular meetings, but to the tyranny which was exerted to enslave men. The French revolution arose from ministerial oppressions, and the arbitrary proceedings of a despotic government, that held the people in continual dread, and silenced their very fears by the terror of the punishments suspended over those who dared to utter their sentiments. "Say then at once (exclaimed the orator), that a free constitution is no longer suitable to Britain: conduct yourselves openly as the senators of Denmark did: lay down your freedom, and acknowledge and accept despotism: but do not mock the understandings and feelings of mankind, by telling the world that you are free." These strictures, seconded by all the brilliancy, ingenuity, and acuteness of Sheridan, the constitutional and legal knowledge, and impressive eloquence of Erskine, being added to the efforts of opposition in the house of peers against the other bill, stirred up a great ferment in the country. Numerous petitions flocked in from every quarter, deprecating the bills as an annihilation of the liberties of the people. In promoting petitions, the lead was taken by the whig club, consisting of men in point of talents, rank, property, and character, equal to any association of the same number in the kingdom. On the other hand, addresses were presented in favour of the bills, which, though not near so numerous, came from persons *aggregately* superior in rank and property to the petitioners.

THE arguments of the addressers and of the parliamentary supporters of Mr. Pitt's bill, were the wicked designs of those who directed the meetings which were

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declares
the bill
intended to
prevent
the exer-
cise of that
right,

and to
shield
ministers:

he alleges
they sub-
vert consti-
tutional
freedom.

Active ef-
forts of
him and
his coadju-
tors, both
in and out
of parlia-
ment.

Petitions.

Arguments
for Mr.
Pitt's bill:

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required by
the circum-
stances of
the times.

somewhat
modified
both pass
into laws.

Impartial
view of the
new acts.

proposed to be suppressed, and their destructive tendency if suffered to continue. The pretence of these meetings was to petition the legislature for rights withheld from the people; but the real motive was, to promulgate opinions that were inimical to government, and calculated to bring it into contempt. If the executive power were not invested with sufficient authority to control these meetings, they would finally endanger the existence of the state. It was the indubitable right of the people to pass their judgment upon ministers and their measures, and freely to express their sentiments on all political subjects, as also to petition the different branches of the legislature; but these rights ought to be kept within their intended limits, and it was the duty of parliament to prevent them from becoming instrumental to the subversion of the established government. The rights of the people doubtless ought to be respected, but it was equally indispensable to obviate their abuse. A precise and acknowledged power was wanted in the magistrate to disperse such meetings as threatened disorder. The bill proposed to restrain no meetings, but those which were evidently calculated to incite ignorant and unwary men against the constitution. It permitted innocent and lawful assemblies, and only prohibited conventions hostile to the existing polity. These arguments convincing the majority in both houses, the bill was passed into a law: lord Grenville's bill also passed about the same time.^b

THESE acts tended greatly to shake the popularity of Mr. Pitt through the kingdom. However efficient they might be for remedying the specific evils that prevailed, yet even many friends of government thought they did much more than the necessity of the case justified. Persons unconnected with party admitted the expediency of extending the treason laws to conspiracies for levying war against the sovereign and constitution; but disapproved of the vague and general description of this new species of treason, including in its overt acts whatever had a *tendency* to rebellion against the king, government, or legislature. This clause they considered as a deviation from

^b For the details of the debates, see Parliamentary Reports.

the spirit of English laws : it opened, they said, a door for the arbitrary and oppressive constructions which characterize absolute and tyrannical systems ; and was therefore contrary to the principles and objects of the British constitution. The restrictions upon the press, imposed by the same act, by many well affected to government were deemed to admit also too much latitude of construction ; to subject literary effort to the control of ministers, and to enchain the freedom of the press. It was allowed by every candid and impartial man, that the harangues and lectures of demagogues, in periodical and occasional conventicles, were extremely dangerous, and required to be prevented ; but, on the other hand, it was asserted, that the laws in existence were sufficient for punishing whatever sedition could be proved to have been uttered ; that the whole community ought not to be debarred from assembling, because incendiaries had, in certain assemblies, violated the laws. The right of discussing public measures belongs to every freeborn Briton ; its exercise promotes his sense of personal importance ; the best nourisher of liberty and independence. Other Britons were not to be debarred from enjoying such privileges, because a foolish, virulent, or malignant lecturer, abused his exercise of the same right. The restriction tended to enervate the spirit of freedom, and thus to effect a great, general, and permanent evil, in order to remedy a partial and temporary evil. The most solid and effectual answer to these very forcible objections was, that the obnoxious laws were only intended to be temporary.

THE abilities of Mr. Pitt often manifested themselves in turning public opinion into the current which best suited his political views ; but one engine he appears not to have estimated with his usual perspicacity : Mr. Pitt laid too little stress upon literary efficacy : while the press is free, literary power will produce great effects on public opinion. The minister was not deemed favourable to writers, as a class : perceiving that they had frequently done much mischief in France, he appeared to have drawn an inference too hasty, that they ought to be discouraged in England. The laws in question, and other acts, tended to restrain the market for literary commodities, conse-

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Restrictions on the freedom of the press.

Mr. Pitt apprehended to undervalue literary effort.

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Majority of the literary class inimical to his administration. Writers represent the series of his measures as more conducive to the power of the crown than the rights of the people.

State of ministerial popularity.

quently to do an aggregate hurt to the profession. This effect literary men felt, and many of them strongly and efficiently expressed their feelings: habits of combination, analysis, comparison, and deduction of general principles, enabled them to view and estimate the character of the legislative measures of Mr. Pitt. In these they professed to discover, that the greater part of our new laws had a reference, either to public revenue, or to the security of the monarchical part of the constitution; and that few, of any extensive operation, are of the class that may be denominated popular.^c

THE violence of some partisans in their promotion of the bills, far transcended the limits which were observed by the minister himself, and added to the dislike with which many regarded those laws. While the minister justified the restriction as a necessary expedient, in a temporary case, without intrenching upon the whig principles on which the British constitution rests, high tories who supported him in defending the church and monarchy, promulgated their own peculiar doctrines; and manifesting a desire of degrading the just authority of a free people, revived exploded doctrines of passive obedience to the existing power. Ingenious men, adverse to ministers, did not fail to impute to the supreme leader these sentiments of too vehement and ardent subalterns; and an opinion now pervaded the lower classes, and infected many of the middling, and some of the higher, that Mr. Pitt was anxious not only to fortify, but extend the power of the crown, to weaken and contract the power of the people. Such an apprehension once entertained, affected the construction of his subsequent conduct; and from this time, his popularity diminished, though, perhaps, his power increased. The financial ability of Mr. Pitt, during the whole of his administration, secured to him the support of the great capitalists, and the moneyed interest. In part of his ministry, the landed interest had been considerably divided, but through the alarms entertained from the French revolution, the greater number had joined his standard. At the beginning of the war, high rank and

^c See Annual Register for 1796, p. 16

great property, with comparatively few exceptions, ranged themselves on the side of the minister. By much the greater proportion of the middling and lower ranks, having moderate or small property, joined the cause, which they, as well as the superior orders, conceived to protect their property, and other benefits which they held; but now many of the middling classes, and most of the lower rank, took the opposite side, while high rank and great opulence continued to favour ministers. In parliament, nearly the usual majorities supported the continuance of war, on the original necessity still remaining, and the expected exhaustion of the enemy's finances. Its opponents repeated their allegations of its original impolicy and folly; denied the probability of a decay of resources, arising from the ardent spirit of freedom; from the events of the last campaign, enforced their former assertions that the contest was hopeless; and adduced new reasons for peace, in the returning disposition to order in the French republicans, which was manifested since the overthrow of Robespierre and of the system of terrorism; they reminded ministers of the hopes held out at the conclusion of the former session in his majesty's speech, and insisted that the meliorated state therein mentioned was now arrived.

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THOUGH ministers repeated their usual arguments for the vigorous prosecution of the war while it lasted, they had not dwelt, as in the former years, on the impracticability, from the internal state of France, of its termination. His majesty's speech at the beginning of the session, delivered while the contest between the terrorists and the moderates in the national convention, was at the most violent height, contained the following declaration: "The distraction and anarchy which have so long prevailed in that country, have led to a crisis, of which it is as yet impossible to foresee the issue, but which must, in all human probability, produce consequences highly important to the interests of Europe. Should this crisis terminate in any order of things compatible with the tranquillity of other countries, and affording a reasonable expectation of security and permanence in any treaty which might be concluded, the appearance of a disposition to negotiate for a general peace, on just and suitable terms,

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Ministers
intimate
his majes-
ty's dispo-
sition to
open a ne-
gotiation
for peace.

Remarks
of Mr. Fox
on this de-
claration.

1796.

"will not fail to be met, on my part, with an earnest desire
"to give it the fullest and speediest effect."^d The moderates
having at length prevailed, his majesty began to enter-
tain hopes of the practicability of a peace with the govern-
ment that now subsisted in France. Accordingly, on the
8th of December, he sent a message to the houses, stating,
that the crisis depending at the commencement of the ses-
sion had led to such an order of things in France, as would
induce his majesty, conformably to the sentiments which
he had already declared, to meet any disposition for ne-
gotiation on the part of the enemy; and expressing his
earnest desire to give it the fullest and speediest effect,
and to conclude a general peace as soon as it could be ac-
complished justly and honourably for Britain and her
allies. After this declaration, the arguments for and
against peace ceased to turn on the *competence* of the ex-
isting French government to conclude a treaty. Mr. Fox
contended that, there never existed an obstacle to negotia-
tion in any of the successive governments of France, it
was like every former discussion of peace and war with
either French or other enemies, a mere question of justice
and expediency, belonging to the contending nations in
their relations to each other, without any connexion with
the internal government of either.^e He rejoiced, however,
that ministers professed to return to a disposition, from
which they ought never to have departed, and to which he
had so often exhorted them in vain. Motions were after-
wards made in the houses of parliament, for addresses to
the king, requesting him to communicate to the executive
government in France, his readiness to embrace an oppor-
tunity of coinciding with them in mutual endeavours for
the reestablishment of peace.^f These propositions were
resisted by ministers: the conduct of a negotiation belonged
solely to the executive government; if ministers were
deemed unworthy of such a trust, their opponents ought to
petition for their removal; but while they continued in
office, they alone could be the proper agents in such a
transaction; they ought, on this principle, to act unitedly,
not only among themselves, but with the allies of this

^d See State Papers for 1795, p. 138. ^e See Parliamentary Reports,
Dec. 8th, 1795. ^f Motion of Mr. Grey, 15th Feb. 1796.

country, to whom no cause should be given to suspect us of duplicity, or of a separate policy. If they remained entire, so powerful a confederacy could not, in the nature of things fail, by perseverance and unanimity, to obtain an advantageous peace; but this desirable object depended on the moderation of the enemy. All had been done which honour and interest admitted, to bring France to this issue; but neither honour nor interest would be sacrificed. On these grounds the several motions^g were negatived. The conduct of the war underwent severe animadversions: it was asserted by opposition, that the miscarriages of the campaign had manifested a total want of concert in our plans; that our military measures were a mere succession of detached experiments, directed to no uniform and consistent object; that they showed a total want of the wisdom and energy, the combination of which was necessary to a war minister. The expedition to Quiberon was reprobated with peculiar severity; ministers were also strongly reprehended for their inadvertence, in not furnishing the troops sent to the West Indies with a sufficient quantity of medical stores, and for maintaining at present, without necessity, no less than a thousand staff officers. The number to which the fencible cavalry amounted, were attributed to the ministerial plan of keeping the people in subjection and dread; the regular cavalry, was equal to every just and proper purpose, without loading the public with so much additional expense. In the preceding summer a great addition had been made to the barracks before erected, and many regiments had been raised, and placed under the command of gentlemen, or noblemen, who had never been in the army. Opposition reprobated these measures, as tending to increase the influence of the crown by lucrative jobs and appointments; the more dangerous, because not a few of these commanders were members of parliament; the barrack system, by separating soldiers from the people, tended to destroy that coincidence of sentiment, without which soldiers would be the mere tools of the executive power, instead of being defenders of the com-

The conduct of the war is severely censured

^g By Mr. Fox and lord Guildford, on the 10th of May, in their respective houses.

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munity.² Ministers defended the expedition of Quiberon, as the result of the best information and reasoning that could be derived from officers of experienced skill, and thoroughly acquainted with the country. In the West Indies, an ample supply of medicinal stores had been sent, but had fallen into the hands of the enemy; they were, however, repairing with all possible expedition. The staff officers were numerous, but not more than were required by the manifold exigencies of the service. The system of barracks was neither new, nor unconstitutional while the war lasted, it was necessary to hold men in readiness, and the present was the most convenient mode for that purpose; they also prevented the inconvenience, trouble, and expense accruing to subjects from quartering soldiers. Men of opulence and distinction had been preferred to commands, in their respective counties, as more able to procure levies than others; besides, in a war of which so important an object was the defence of rank and property, it was consistent and prudent to employ persons who had so much at stake.

-Supplies.

Immense
Loan.

THE national expenditure was also a subject of discussion. Besides the annual income of the country, two loans were this year required; the first, including a vote of credit, consisted of twenty millions and a half; and the second of seven millions and a half. So enormous a sum added to the preceding debts incurred since the war, made the additional amount of the national incumbrances near eighty millions in three years. The censors of the war viewing this immense burden, asked its supporters what benefit would accrue to the country to balance the loss? To what end were we carrying on a contest of such unparalleled cost? the minister had asserted, we were warring for security and indemnity; how was a repetition of disaster to strengthen security? Failing in our enterprises, whence were we to derive a compensation? Ministers contended that the war had been undertaken for the most important objects, that the greatest and most vigorous

² These arguments were urged in repeated motions; especially a proposition by Mr. Grey, on the state of the nation, on the 10th of March; by Mr. Sheridan, for inquiring into the mortality in the West Indies, on the 31st of April; and by Mr. Grey, for an impeachment of his majesty's ministers on the 24th of April. See Parliamentary Reports.

preparations were necessary, not only for defending Britain if the war should continue, but for inclining the enemy to peace. Our commercial situation, notwithstanding the war, was more prosperous than at any antecedent period. The average of exports, during the three last years of peace, the most flourishing ever known in this country, was twenty two millions five hundred and eighty-five thousand pounds; and the same average for the last three years of war was twenty-four millions four hundred and fifty-three thousand. The expenditure of war was doubtless immense; but the exertions to which it was applied were of no less magnitude. Never was the energy of this country so astonishingly displayed, nor its resources so wonderfully proved; our fleets and our armies were in a far superior condition, both as to numbers and equipment, to those which were maintained in the American war. Besides, the decreased value of money made a very great real difference in sums nominally the same; and compared with the importance of the object, and the magnitude of our efforts, the amount was not excessive.

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EVERY impartial observer, reviewing the taxes both of the present and the former years of the war, admitted, that if politically necessary, they were financially judicious. The principal subjects were wines, spirits, tea, coffee, silk, fruit, tobacco, hair powder, and various other articles of luxury, without any encroachment upon the necessities of life. Opposition, however, contested the financial expediency of the imposts. In the house of peers, the earl of Moira exhibited a very able discussion upon the revenue, the taxes, the imports and exports, and the other financial circumstances of the nation, at the close of the American war, and at the present period. The inferences from the arguments and statements produced by the respective parties were extremely opposite. The one represented the situation of this country as replete with the most arduous difficulties, and almost verging to ruin; and the other described it as full of opulence and resources of every denomination; and able, with proper management, to encounter and surmount every obstacle, and to flourish with more lustre than ever. Opposition, not understanding that ministers were taking any steps for the attainment

The taxes financially judicious; laid on the luxuries and conveniences, and not the necessities, of life.

Able speech of earl Moira on revenue

Proposed remonstrance,

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of peace, charged him with insincerity ; and in both houses proposed a very strong address in the nature of a remonstrance, professing to exhibit the leading features, principles, and character of ministerial conduct from the beginning of the war ; and attempting to prove that they had transgressed every rule of prudence and policy ; and praying his majesty to adopt maxims more suitable to the public exigencies. On a review (this remonstrance set forth) of so many instances of gross and flagrant misconduct, proceeding from the same pernicious principles, and directed with incorrigible obstinacy to the same mischievous ends, we deem ourselves bound in duty to your majesty, and to our constituents, to declare that we see no rational hope of redeeming the affairs of the kingdom, but by the adoption of a system radically and fundamentally different from that which has produced our present calamities ; unless your majesty's ministers shall, from a real conviction of past errors, appear inclined to regulate their conduct upon such a system, we can neither give any credit to the sincerity of their professions of a wish for peace, nor repose any confidence in them for conducting a negotiation to a prosperous issue : the proposed address was combatted on the usual grounds, and negatived by a very great majority.

is negatived.

Dissolution
of parliament.

MR. WILBERFORCE, this year, made a new motion for the abolition of the slave trade, which, though supported by messrs. Pitt and Fox, was rejected. On the 19th of May, parliament was prorogued, and a few days after it was dissolved.

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Views of the belligerent powers.—French decree for the irrevocable annexation of Belgium to the republic.—Hopes of Britain and of Austria.—The governments of the contending countries are little disposed to peace—the people on both sides desire to terminate the evils of war—the respective governments profess a pacific disposition—indirect overtures of Britain to France—the answer of the French for the present prevents negotiation.—Belligerent policy of the French government.—French objects of the campaign—La Vendee, Germany, and Italy.—The reduction of La Vendee.—Tendency of revolution to call forth abilities.—Numbers of able commanders who sprung up among the French.—This year displays an extraordinary general.—Bonaparte appointed to command the French army in Italy.—Numerous and well disciplined army of the emperor—assisted by the Italian princes.—Inferior force of the French.—Bonaparte commands the minds of his soldiers—he attacks and defeats the Austrians—repeated victories.—Bonaparte separates the Austrian and Piedmontese armies.—By a victory at Mondovi he compels the king of Sardinia to yield at discretion—who receives peace from his dictation.—Bonaparte surmounts the natural ramparts of Italy—wise measures to keep up the spirit of his troops.—Battle at the bridge of Lodi—signal exploit and victory of Bonaparte—he imitates the Romans in their rapacity as well as valour—but mingles conciliatory policy, especially towards the populace.—Conspiracies at the instance of the nobles and clergy—are disconcerted—and punished.—Bonaparte gains to his interest the men of genius and literature—and endeavours to bring every kind of talent into efficient action—result of his political efforts—he resumes military operations—marches from Italy towards Germany.—Wurmser takes the field with a fresh army of

Austrians—is repulsed by the French.—Bonaparte invests Mantua—Wurmser approaches to its relief.—Bonaparte is surrounded at Lonado—he extricates himself by a stratagem, and induces a much superior army to surrender—Successive victories of Bonaparte—decisive victory at Arcola—capture of Mantua.—Commotions at Rome—conduct of the papal government—the pope attempts to make war against Bonaparte—the French general makes conciliatory overtures—reply of the pope.—Bonaparte invades the Roman territories, and compels the pontiff to sue for a peace.—Amount of the French acquisitions in Italy in this campaign.—Political administration of Bonaparte.—Germany invaded by Jourdain and Moreau.—The archduke Charles—successive battles of, with Jourdain.—Danger of the empire—is ward off by the valour of the archduke—who compels Jourdain to evacuate Germany.—Progress and situation of Moreau—masterly and successful retreat in the face of the German host.—Britain continues signally successful where she fights alone—retakes St. Lucie—quells insurrections in the other islands—captures seven Dutch ships of the line in Saldanna bay—reduces Ceylon and other Dutch settlements in the east—judges it expedient to relinquish Corsica.—Ineffectual attempts of the French upon Ireland.—Internal events.—Birth of a prince, heir to the prince of Wales.—General election—the least contested of any in the eighteenth century.—British government proposes to send an ambassador to Paris to negotiate a peace.—France agrees to receive a British ambassador.

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Views of
the belligerent powers.

DURING the last campaign the efforts of the French republicans had been much less successful than from the victories and acquirements of the former year, together with the diminution of the confederacy, they had probable grounds for expecting: they were anxious to recover their superiority of military prowess, and with this view the directory made vigorous preparations to place the numerous armies of the republic on the most formidable footing. It was proposed to the legislature and solemnly decreed to annex their acquisitions in th—

Low Countries, and on the left side of the Rhine, irrevocably to the dominions of the republic. In the relative circumstances of the belligerent powers, a resolution of this nature precluded all ideas of peace. The retention of those fertile and spacious provinces could not be submitted to, without an evident alteration of the political system of Europe, of which France would possess a control that would perpetually disturb the peace, if not endanger the safety of all her neighbours. The inhabitants of Belgium, so long habituated to the sway of the Austrian princes, which, though occasionally oppressive, had been generally mild, still retained a willingness to return to their obedience, provided they could be secured in the enjoyment of their ancient customs and liberties. Sensible of this disposition, and exaggerating the success of the last campaign, the Austrian cabinet preserved the hope of recovering those fertile provinces. The British ministers were no less bent on the restoration of the Austrian Netherlands to their former owner. The accession of such immense and valuable territories to France in so close a proximity, seriously alarmed all men who reflected on the power, energy and enterprise of the French; and their violent resentment against this country. The government of Britain and her ally on the one hand, and of the French on the other, were, from this contention of adverse purposes, little inclined to peace; but the people in all the conflicting countries were anxiously desirous to be relieved from a war, the pressing evils of which they immediately felt; and the eventual advantages of which, if any, they either did not comprehend, or did not think sufficient to counterbalance the present burdens and losses. The belligerent government therefore, to gratify the people, found it expedient to assume the appearance of a pacific disposition; in which, from the subsequent acknowledgments^a of our ministers, it is certain, and from the conduct of the French directors it is very probable, that they were respectively inimical to peace. The French, meanwhile, were employing their usual ingenuity and address, in endeavouring to detach various members from the hostile confederacy, and Basle, a considerable city in Switzer-

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French decree for the irrevocable annexation of Belgium to the republic.

Hopes of Britain and of Austria.

The governments of the contending countries are little disposed to peace.

The people on both sides desire to terminate the evils of war. The respective governments profess a pacific disposition.

^a See Mr. Pitt's speech on the first consul's proposals for peace, in Jan. 1800

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Lastest
overture of
Britain to
France.

The an-
swer of the
French for
the present
prevents
negotia-
tion.

Belligerent
policy of
the French
govern-
ment.

French ob-
jects of the
campaign ;
La Vendée,
Germany,
and Italy

land, was on account of its neutral state and central position, the scene of their negotiations. There the celebrated M. Barthelemy had concluded the treaty with Prussia and was still engaged in diplomatic agency. Mr. Wickham, the British ambassador to the Swiss cantons, was instructed to apply to this gentleman, to sound the disposition of the French government, and to learn whether the directory were desirous to negotiate with Britain and her allies, on moderate and honourable conditions, and would agree to the meeting of a congress for this purpose, and specify the terms on which it would treat, or point out any other method of procedure. The answer received from M. Barthelemy, in the name of the directory, was, that it felt the sincerest desire to terminate the war on such conditions as France could reasonably accept, and which were specified in the answer ; but one of these positively insisted on the retention of the Austrian dominions in the Low Countries, and assigned as a reason, their formal annexation to the republic by a constitutional decree that could not be revoked. This reply expressing a decided resolution not to part with their acquisitions, displayed, in the opinion of the British ministers, a disposition so arrogant, that the negotiation was suspended, and both parties proceeded to open the campaign.

THE French directory had now to contend with two potent enemies ; the one of which surpassed most nations, but was inferior to France in land forces ; the other far exceeded all nations, and even France herself, in maritime strength. With a policy much more profound than that which dictated the belligerent measures of the Bourbon princes, the revolutionary rulers employed their exertions in the scenes of probable victory, instead of probable defeat : their armies still superior to their valiant and disciplined opponents, occupied their principal attention, and their fleets subjects of only secondary consideration, did not divert, as in former wars, to hopeless efforts a grand portion of their resources.

THE directory had three objects in contemplation : an invasion of Germany, another of Italy, and the complete reduction of domestic insurgents. The subjugation of La Vendée was indispensably necessary, before they could

carry into execution their grand projects against the Austrian dominions. The connexion of the insurgents with the most formidable and dangerous rivals of France—the English, made it evident, that while the royal party subsisted unsubdued, it would probably, as it had done in the preceding year, throw such embarrassments in the military operations intended against foreign enemies, as would clog and impede the plans that were proposed. The discomfiture of the expedition from England, and the severe punishment of its abettors, had frightened the Vendéans. The leaders of the insurrection, however, found means to excite the people to a new revolt, attended with all the disorders usual in civil war. Charette and Stoffet published a manifesto, charging the republicans with breach of faith, and the most outrageous cruelty. In consequence of the revolutionary enormities, they declared themselves determined to take up arms again, and never to lay them down till the heir of the crown was restored, and the catholic religion reestablished.^b They held out every motive that had formerly been prevalent; attachment to their religion, love of their king, and hatred to the present innovations. Many were induced accordingly to enlist again under their banners: but the greater part remained quiet in their habitations, and the flower of the insurgents was not, as before, composed of the Vendéans, but of the mixed and numerous mass of the inhabitants of the several provinces of Brittany, Poitou, Maine, Anjou, and others which are situated on the banks of the Loire.^c Hostilities raged with great fury during the winter; the republican government sent general Hoche early in the season against the insurgents: Charette was completely defeated, and his followers dispersed. The directory wishing to adhere to the moderate measures which from the beginning of their power they professed to adopt, enjoined their commanders and troops to employ conciliation as much as possible; and to abstain from all unnecessary severity. An amnesty of the past was accordingly published to all who should return to their duty; every district which surrendered its arms, and punctually conform-

^b Otridge's Annual Register, 1796.

^c See Otridge's Annual Register, for 1796, p. 83.

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The re-
duction of
La Ven-
dee.

ed to the conditions prescribed, was immediately placed under the protection of the laws. Conciliatory policy, the wisest that can be adopted in intestine insurrections, for terminating revolt already broken by successful force, proved ultimately effectual, and the rebellion was crushed. The government was now at liberty to direct the whole force of its efforts against Germany and Italy.

Tendency
of revolu-
tion to call
forth abili-
ties.

As the directors by personal efforts had reached the pinnacle of executive power, by success only could they hope to retain eminence. The insurance of success depended on the choice of instruments in the various departments of public service. In revolutionary governments which have levelled preexisting establishments, promotion according to qualification, exclusively, is much more practicable than in old and regular constitutions, which contain fixed gradations of rank and of orders. In the very best systems of polity that have been long settled, splendid ancestry, high rank, extensive property, or political connexions, attach to certain families or individuals such an authority, that few ministers can avoid employing them in services for which their talents and characters by no means render them the fittest that could be chosen. A British minister, even if he should be desirous, would find it difficult to fill either military or political departments with the most efficacious men that could be found, without respect to rank, situation, and influence: even Mr. Secretary Pitt, who carried the principle of employing men according to their respective abilities farther than any other English minister, in *politics* was obliged to admit the cooperation of certain men of rank and influence, whom his penetrating judgment would assuredly never have selected, on account of their personal qualities, as his associates in great designs. Forming his naval and military appointments without control, and choosing that class of executive servants on the simple principle of instrumentality, he obtained such brilliant successes both by sea and land. The French government, totally unfettered from prescription and authority,^d possessed without control the

^d Although it be a fact, that in revolutions abilities generally rise to a greater elevation than in established governments, yet it does not follow that it is a beneficial fact, as the able heads which are thus raised, commonly attain and preserve their power by the most mischievous qualities of the heart: such pos-

power that might be instrumental to success. Thence sprang so many able generals, whose genius, without neglecting the lessons of experience, disdained mere precedent, and invented new combinations of defence and attack, new modes of advance and retreat, to suit the circumstances of their situation.

THE campaign 1796 exhibited a young leader, who in prowess, energy, and exploits, equalled any commander that the late war discovered and exercised: this was Napoleone Bonaparte, a native of Corsica, born about 1769. The youth possessed talents and qualities which peculiarly fitted him for attaining distinction in the ferment of revolution, and the dangers of war. To a head sagacious and inventive, instantaneous in comprehension, and rapid in efforts, he joined a heart that was ardent, resolute, intrepid, and courageous; with an aspiring ambition, and an impetuous temper. One prominent feature of his character was determined perseverance in his purposes, and he would scruple no sacrifice to compass his ends. His object being to exalt himself, he joined the parties that were successively paramount; was a monarchist, constitutionalist, and terrorist. To Robespierre he adhered as long as fortune adhered; and with no less eagerness devoted himself to that monster's successors, and became a prime favourite with Lepaux: he was at equal pains to win the attachment of the troops. The directors discerned the vigorous and fertile genius of Bonaparte, knew his military ardour and energy, and his popularity among the soldiers. Such qualifications they conceived to overbalance his youth and limited experience; and they conferred on him the command of the army of Italy.

THE emperor was joined by the king of Sardinia, the king of Naples, and the pope; and during the three preceding years, the French had in vain attempted to pierce through Piedmont into the interior parts of Italy. The immense barriers of mountains which divide that country from Savoy seemed to oppose an insurmountable obstacle

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Numbers
of able
command-
ers who
sprang up
among the
French.
This year
displays an
extraordi-
nary gene-
ral.
Bonaparte.

Appointed
to com-
mand the
French ar-
my in
Italy.

sensors of supremacy, far beyond their original rank and station, have usually proved unprincipled adventurers, who regarded neither justice, patriotism, nor the good of mankind, in comparison with their own ambition. For instance, Caesar, Cromwell, &c.

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Numerous
and well
disciplined
army of
the emper-
or, assist-
ed by the
Italian
princes.

Inferior
force of the
French.

Bonaparte
commands
the minds
of his
soldiers.

to their progress. The republicans were indeed in possession of the coast from Nice to Genoa; but the passes in Lombardy were guarded with such care that no apprehension was entertained by the court of Turin with respect to the future.* The emperor's forces amounted to eighty thousand well disciplined men, commanded by excellent generals and able officers, and provided with every species of warlike necessities. The king of Sardinia's army was sixty thousand strong, exclusive of militia: the pope and the king of Naples were occupied in embodying as many troops as their circumstances would permit, and the latter had despatched two or three thousand horse to serve in the imperial army. Such obstacles opposed by nature, joined to so great a hostile army, only served to rouse the genius and spirit of Bonaparte. The whole force which the French could afford to this general, before La Vendée was reduced, did not exceed fifty thousand, not so well supplied as the much more numerous host of his veteran adversaries; with this army he took the field in the month of April. According to the common calculation of probabilities, in a war stimulated by the usual principles of enmity among sovereigns, the project of forcing the passes of the Italian mountains against such numerous and powerful foes, would have been extravagant and romantic. A tactician of mere experience,^f without penetration and invention, reasoning very fairly from *his* knowledge and views, would have concluded, that such an attempt must terminate in disappointment and disaster: but Bonaparte, penetrating into the French mind and springs of action, saw that the republicans were animated by an enthusiasm which would overbear all the regular but phlegmatic valour of the Germans. The Austrian army was commanded by general Beaulieu, an officer of great military experience, though in the Netherlands, as we have seen, he had been overpowered by the republicans. The imperialists being inspirited with the successes of their countrymen in the preceding year, and his troops being so

c See Belsham's History, vol. v. p. 419.

f A very common objection against the military efforts of Bonaparte was, that they deviated from the established practice; and with those *judges* who in MEANS regard *usage* more than ADAPTATION TO ENDS, the objection must have weight.

numerous, he did not hesitate to act on the offensive ; and, in the beginning of April, he advanced towards the French lines. On the 9th he attacked an outpost with success ; and, on the 11th, he attempted the other intrenchments.^g

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Bonaparte, by a rapid movement, turning the enemy's flank and rear, assailed them with impetuous vigour at a place called Montenotta, and gained a complete victory, having killed fifteen hundred men, and taken two thousand prisoners. Like Cæsar, Bonaparte was not only energetic, but rapid in energy: eager to improve his victory, he pursued the Austrians, who had retreated to a strong situation on an eminence called Millasimo; but general Angereau having forced the avenues to their position, the imperialists retired to the ruins of an old castle, and having fortified themselves they recovered from the disorder into which they had been thrown by their late defeat. Conceiving his forces, after this respite, still superior to the republicans, Beaulieu again, on the 16th of April, attacked the French army. The troops on both sides were animated with extraordinary courage, the Austrians regarding with indignation their route at Montenotta, which they imputed to a stratagem, and not to the prowess of the enemy, were eager to efface the remembrance of the disaster. The French, elated with their victory, which had so auspiciously commenced the campaign, and operated so powerfully on their susceptible and impetuous minds, glowed with an ardent desire of overwhelming the superior numbers of their enemies. The Austrian charge was extremely vigorous, but was withstood with an intrepidity and strength that could not be moved. While the imperialists were bending the whole force of their attack on the front of the enemy's centre, Bonaparte, with the most dexterous celerity, moved his wings round the right and left of the Germans, and in a short time assailed them in both flanks and rear. Thus unexpectedly surrounded, the imperialists sustained a dreadful defeat, two thousand were slain in the field, and eight thousand made prisoners. Among the killed were some officers of high distinction ;

He attacks
and defeats
the Aus-
trians.

Repeated
victories.

^g See Campaigns of Bonaparte for the military details both of this and succeeding actions; and also the Austrian accounts, as inserted in our gazettes of 1796.

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Bonaparte separates the Austrian and Piedmontese armies. April 22d by a victory at Mondovi, he compels the king of Sardinia to yield at discretion, who receives peace from his dictation.

and of the taken, one was a general, and near thirty colonels, besides inferior officers. Between twenty and thirty cannon fell into the hands of the French, with fifteen standards, and an immense quantity of stores and field equipage. Beaulieu, not disheartened by these disasters, collected as many as possible of his scattered soldiers, and the following day attacked the French, who did not expect an assault from troops they had just vanquished, and were indulging themselves in that repose which comes so grateful after the successful completion of arduous labours. The onset at first disconcerted the republicans, they relaxed in their vigilance; but they soon rallied. Bonaparte, agreeably to his plan already twice successful, formed a large body in front of the enemy, to occupy their attention, while another division, going round, should charge them in flank. The celerity of the French movements soon obliged the enemy to act on the defensive. Having long made a resolute stand, the Austrians were compelled to give ground, and leave the field to the French, with the loss of near two thousand men, of whom about fifteen hundred were made prisoners. On the side of the French, great numbers also fell, and among these Causa, one of their best officers. In the course of these battles, Bonaparte effected a separation between the Austrian and Piedmontese armies, and now directed his efforts against the troops of the king of Sardinia. On the 22d of April, he came up with the Italians at Mondovi, and attacked them though strongly intrenched: the Piedmontese made a very vigorous resistance, but totally unavailing against the republican impetuosity and force. The royal army was completely routed, and the fate of the king's dominions decided by the defeat.^h His Sardinian majesty saw that his only means of escape from utter ruin was to accept peace from the dictation of the victorious general. He was compelled to cede Savoy and Nice: to withdraw from the coalition; to apologise for his conduct towards the French republic; and, retaining the name of king, to become a mere dependent on France. Thus Bonaparte, in the first month of his command, effected what his predecessors had

^h Campaigns of Bonaparte.

for three years, without any misconduct, attempted in vain. He had stormed the ramparts of Italy, and, like Hannibal,ⁱ had its delightful vales and fertile fields lying within his grasp. Their astonishing successes could not fail to inspire the French armies with the highest degree of exulting joy; nor did their commander forget to improve the sentiments of self applause and confidence manifested by them, into that disposition of mind which would lead them on to those farther exploits that he had in contemplation. He issued an address, concisely and forcibly recapitulating the achievements which they had already performed, and the objects which lay within the reach of their valorous efforts.^k They were come (he said) into Italy to deliver the inhabitants from the government of strangers, and the tyranny of domestic rulers. Bonaparte being now freed from his Sardinian enemy, advanced against the Austrians. The German general and his troops, bravely as they fought, being repeatedly defeated, retired near Milan, the capital of Lombardy, and made a stand at a very strong post at Lodi,^l determined to venture a battle, which was necessary to save Milan and the whole Austrian interest in Italy. Between Bonaparte and the imperialists was the river Adda, over which there was a long bridge, that Beaulieu had intended to break down, but was prevented by the quick approach of the French general. It was protected, however, by so numerous an artillery, that the Austrians did not imagine the French would be able to force a passage. Bonaparte saw the tremendous danger, but instantaneous in reasoning, he perceived the exact predicament in which he stood. The astonishing successes which sprang from his direction of valorous enthusiasm, had been carried to their present pitch by the opinion that his troops entertained of themselves and their general; and failure in an attempt however arduous, by lessening their conception of their resistless force, would damp their glowing animation, and diminish the energy of their future efforts. In such circumstances the most adventurous boldness was solid wisdom. Guided by these reflections and

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Bonaparte surmounts the natural ramparts of Italy.

Wise measures to keep up the spirit of his troops.

Battle at the bridge of Lodi.

ⁱ See Livy, book xxi.
^l and Campaigns of Bonaparte.

^k Annual Register, 1796, p. 91.

^l Ibid. p.

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Signal ex-
ploit and
victory of
Bonaparte.

sentiments, he determined to try every effort, and to encounter every personal danger, in order to carry a point on which such momentous interest appeared to depend. Forming together the selectest bodies of his army, in the midst of a most tremendous fire, he led them in person to the attack of the bridge. His presence, and that of all the chief officers in the French army, animated the soldiers to such a degree, that they rushed forward with an impetuosity which nothing was able to withstand. They crossed the bridge, and assailed the whole line of the Austrian artillery, which was instantly broken. They fell with equal fury on the troops that advanced to the charge, threw them into disorder, and put them to flight on every side; and the victory was complete. Bonaparte having thus defeated the principal army of the imperialists, after taking Pavia, proceeded to Milan, and, with its capital, subdued the greater part of Lombardy before the end of May. The Austrian army retreated towards the frontiers, and the imperialists being no longer able to protect Italy, the pope and the king of Naples sued for an armistice, which was granted to the king of Naples on condition of his observing a neutrality, but the pope was required to pay a large sum of money, and also to deliver a great number of pictures, busts, and statues. The victorious French required from the Italian princes, as a condition of peace, the delivery of the various monuments of art. Imitating the Romans in rapacity as well as valour, they sent the pictures, statues, and sculptures, to the national repositories. This spoliation of monuments, which bearing signal testimony to the taste and genius of the Italians, were regarded with national pride and veneration, and which had escaped the irruptions of all former plunderers, excited the most poignant regret and indignation among the conquered, and was universally condemned and execrated by all civilized nations.^m

The
French
imitate the
Romans in
their rapa-
city as well
as valour.

^m In this part of his narrative, the author of Otridge's Annual Register makes the following observations: "To deprive the poor Italians of objects so long endeared to them by habit and possession, seemed an act of tyranny exercised upon the vanquished in the wantonness of power. Those objects had been respected by all parties, in the vicissitude of those events that had so frequently subjected the places that contained them to different masters: the French were the first who had conceived the idea of seizing them as a matter of mere property. Herein they were accused of consulting their vanity rather than their taste for

WHEREVER Bonaparte carried his victorious arms, as soon as he had effected conquest, and exacted the contributions to which, as a conqueror, he deemed his efforts entitled, he endeavoured to mingle conciliation,^a especially in his treatment of the lower classes. The commons, who were by no means indisposed towards the French republicanism, which promised protection against aristocratical domination and tyranny, he treated with the greatest mildness, professing that he had entered Italy to vindicate their rights, and to promote their happiness. But the irreligious and democratical spirit of the French revolution, excited his army to express and manifest the most contemptuous irreverence towards the priests, whom they represented as impostors; and detestation against the nobles, whom they painted as oppressors. These two orders were no less incensed against the French, whom they regarded with equal abhorrence and dread, as the destroyers of religion, and the levellers of the privileged orders. As they still retained a considerable influence, they endeavoured to employ it in inciting the commonalty against the republicans. A conspiracy was formed for a general insurrection, and commotions were prevalent throughout Lombardy: Pavia was intended to be the principal scene of the plot: but the active vigilance of Bonaparte discovered the designs before they were ripe for execution, and his force soon crushed their machinations: he ordered the chief conspirators to be shot, and the others to find two hundred hostages for their peaceable behaviour in future. Thither, for the same reason, he also sent the nobles and priests of the insurgent districts, and denounced the same punishment against all who should afterwards be found instigating insurrection. He next issued a proclamation, declaring, that those who did not lay down their arms within twenty-four hours, and take an oath of obedience to the French republic, should be treated as rebels, and their houses committed to the

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Bonaparte mingles conciliatory policy, especially towards the populace.

Conspiracies at the instance of the nobles and clergy,

are disconcerted,

and punished.

the fine arts. The Romans, in their triumphant periods, had plundered the Greeks of all the master pieces they could find in their country. This appeared to the French a precedent fit for their imitation, and a sanction for robbing the Italians of what they esteemed the most valuable part of their property, and the most honourable proof they still retained of their former superiority in those departments of genius.

^a See Annual Register, 1796, p. 97.

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Bonaparte
gains to his
interest the
men of ge-
nius and
literature,

and endea-
vours to
bring eve-
ry kind of
talent into
efficient
action.

He re-
sumes mi-
litary ope-
rations:

marches
from Italy
towards
Germany.

flames. Having employed these effectual means to crush insurrection, Bonaparte was enabled to return to conciliatory efforts. He with great activity and success endeavoured to attach Italian partisans to the French cause. Besides the commonalty, who rejoiced at the idea of the freedom proffered by the French, Bonaparte gained great numbers of another class. The literary men of Italy were, as in France, with very few exceptions, inimical to the existing orders, and eager for changes under which they hoped to attain higher power and importance than they possessed under the clergy and nobles. Bonaparte readily saw that they might be rendered very useful instruments in directing public opinion as long as insinuation and persuasion should be necessary or expedient; and that votaries of physical studies might be employed in promoting the productiveness of the new conquests. So far did Bonaparte apply conciliation, as to court those who would readily join against the possessors of property; and so far did he patronize literature and philosophy, as to make them labouring tools for his accommodation, emolument, and aggrandizement. His soldiers pretending to honour, he merely *used*; they were a different kind of tools, which he never failed to employ, when conciliation, literary patronage, or any other persuasives, would not suit his purpose.

MANTUA only, of the Austrian dominions, remained in the possession of the emperor. Bonaparte, not having a sufficient train of artillery to reduce that strong fortress immediately by storm, resolved to pursue the Austrian army. The broken forces of the Germans had, in their retreat, taken refuge in the Venetian territory; and thither they were closely pursued by the French. Bonaparte published an address to the government of Venice, assuring them, that, in following the enemies of France into the Venetian territories, he would observe the strictest discipline, and treat the inhabitants with all the amity and consideration that were due to the ancient friendship subsisting between the two nations. Meanwhile, the Austrians took possession of Peschiera, by the connivance^o of

the Venetians, to whom that town belonged. Here Beaulieu hoped to be able to make a stand, till succours should arrive from Germany. Bonaparte, desirous to drive him from Italy, or to compel him to surrender, advanced to that town, intending to cut off his retreat to the Tyrol by the eastern side of the lake of Garda. On the 30th of May, several divisions of the French approached the bridge of Borghetto, by which Bonaparte proposed to effect a passage over the Mincio, and surround Beaulieu's army. The Austrians employed the utmost efforts to defend the bridge; but the French crossed it after a warm action;—and the German general, perceiving their intent, withdrew in haste from his position at Peschiera, and retired with the utmost expedition to the river Adige, which, having passed, he broke down all the bridges to prevent the French from continuing the pursuit, and by these means he secured his retreat to Tyrol. The Venetians had given refuge to the brother of the late king of France, who was called by the royalists Lewis XVIII.: but, anxious to prevent or avert the displeasure of the French republic, they directed Lewis to quit the Venetian territories. Bonaparte, on the 3d of June, took possession of the city of Verona, the late residence of the French prince, and continued his progress. The emperor, finding the victorious republicans advancing from Italy to Germany, gave the command of his troops to marshal Wurmser, who having collected a powerful force, marched to encounter Bonaparte. The Austrian troops contained the flower of the emperor's army, which far exceeded the conception of the enemy, and inspired both the emperor and his ally with hopes of retrieving the fortune of the campaign. Bonaparte had found it necessary to divide his troops, in order to secure the conquered territory, and the situation of the French at this period was extremely critical: they had subdued an extensive range of country, to preserve which they had been obliged to detach considerable numbers from their main body. The remains of Beaulieu's army, and the reinforcements which arrived with marshal Wurmser, composed a much more formidable strength than that which Bonaparte commanded; but the confidence which he placed in the valour of his sol-

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Wurmser takes the field with a fresh army of Austrians:

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is repulsed
by the
French.Bonaparte
invests
Mantua.Wurmser
approach-
es to its re-
lief.Bonaparte
is sur-
rounded at
Lonado;

diers, and that which they reposed in his superior genius and skill, were more than adequate to numbers and even disciplined valour. The Austrians had secured the passage into the Tyrol, by works which extended from the lake of Garda to the river Adige. Here Wurmser posted himself in the end of June; but the French generals Massena and Joubert, at the head of a select body, broke into his lines by turning his right and left: they seized his baggage and standing camp, and forced him to retreat with the utmost precipitation. Bonaparte, meanwhile, had crushed a new insurrection in Lago, an ecclesiastical town; and from the many fortresses which he captured having collected a formidable train of artillery, he determined to invest Mantua. About the middle of July, he commenced a regular siege, and pressed on his operations with incessant vigour: he summoned the town to surrender, but without effect. Having erected batteries for firing red-hot balls, he cannonaded the city, and reduced several parts of it to ashes. Meanwhile Wurmser, having received very great reinforcements, resolved to repair his recent defeat by raising the siege of Mantua. Having attacked the divisions of the French that were placed near lake Garda, he dislodged them from their positions; and, with a very numerous and formidable host, advanced between them and Bonaparte's army. He marched towards Mantua, while another division of Austrians also approached. Bonaparte, aware that the force which he now had with him was unequal to a conflict with the combined armies of Austria, resolved to encounter them separately. This purpose, however, he could not execute without abandoning the siege of Mantua, which he most reluctantly raised on the 30th of July. Several engagements were fought between the Austrians and the French, in which the republicans were generally superior, though without a decisive event. Bonaparte, in examining one of his advanced posts, found himself surrounded at Lonada by four thousand Austrians, while he had only twelve hundred. With ready presence of mind, he impressed the German commander with a belief that his whole army was at hand, under which notion that leader surrendered himself with his detachment. Escaped from this danger, the French

general determined to bring the contest to a final issue ; but to cover his intentions, he feigned to be desirous of avoiding an engagement. Wurmser, imputing his conduct to consciousness of inferior force, hastened to bring on a battle. On the 5th of August, while deceived by appearances, he was advancing the French army by one of its rapid movements, was formed into two divisions, the one of which received the enemy in front, whilst the other, having doubled the right wing during the night, attacked them in rear. Wurmser, hemmed in by this dexterous stratagem, made, with his veteran host, a most gallant and obstinate resistance ; but the impetuous valour of the republicans bore down all before them, and obtained a still greater victory than even at the battle of Lodi. The losses of the Austrians amounted to seventy pieces of cannon, all the carriages belonging to their army, more than twelve thousand prisoners, and six thousand slain. The Austrian government, still unbroken by continued disaster, raised numerous levies, and Wurmser once more made head against Bonaparte in the field. A succession of conflicts ensued, in which the French, without gaining any signal victory, were greatly superior. At length, in the month of November, a battle was fought at Arcola, in which, after a vicissitude of attacks and repulses, during the fifteenth and sixteenth, and a very obstinate and doubtful contest, the French finally gained a signal victory,^p and the Austrians did not again encounter the French in the field, during the present campaign. This event was completely decisive : the troops, that were beaten, were chiefly veterans ; those who came with Wurmser, were deemed the flower of the Austrian army, that had so obstinately contended with the best troops of France upon the Rhine. Wurmser himself was reputed an officer second to no one in the imperial service, or indeed in Europe, for valour, skill, and experience, and was deemed the last hope of Austria for the recovery of Italy. The Austrians, their allies, and all the friends of the cause in which they were engaged, had conceived the most sanguine expectations from the military talents of Wurmser, and the

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he extricates himself by a stratagem, and induces a much superior army to surrender. Successive victories of Bonaparte.

Decisive victory at Arcola :

^p See Campaigns of Bonaparte.

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force by which they were supported. Both he and his soldiers did all that courage, discipline, and skill could perform, but against the impetuous enthusiasm of the republican forces, and the overpowering genius of Bonaparte, their efforts were unavailing. Throughout the whole course of this arduous trial, the powers and exertions of this leader astonished both friends and foes. Surrounded by difficulties of every sort, he acted with a clearness of penetration that foresaw and obviated them all: he removed impediments as fast as they arose, and took his measures with so much prudence and sagacity, that he could not be charged with having committed one false step. His body and his mind appeared reciprocally calculated for the support of each other: both were incessantly employed, the one in planning, and the other in personally forwarding every design that was conceived.^q

Of Austrian Italy, Mantua still remained unsubdued; thither the republican force was now bent, and the imperialists once more collected a formidable army for its preservation. Various conflicts ensued, in which Austrian firmness and intrepidity made a most vigorous stand against the impetuous valour and enthusiastic animation of the republicans. At length they again encountered each other in a pitched battle, at Rivoli; the imperialists in valour and conduct equalled any of their former most heroic efforts, and once appeared to be on the eve of victory; when Bonaparte, with the usual rapidity of his genius and energy, made an instantaneous movement, which surrounded a great body of Austrians, entirely defeated them, and facilitated the discomfiture of their principal strength: by this disaster all hopes of defending Mantua were vanished; and the garrison was obliged to capitulate.

Capture of
Mantua.

Commo-
tions at
Rome.

WHILE the contest appeared doubtful between the imperial and republican generals, the Italian clergy, hoping the Austrians might prove successful, again renewed their machinations to incite the people to insurrection; but the victories of the French soon suppressed these attempts throughout the north of Italy. In Rome the anti-gallican

^q See Otridge's Annual Register for 1796, p. 108.

party was much more violent and open in its proceedings than in other Italian districts. The pope, having heard that the siege of Mantua was raised, without waiting either to examine the reasons, or observe the consequences of this movement, sent a legate to retake possession of Ferrara, in direct opposition to the convention concluded with Bonaparte, and to the wishes of the people, who were noted for dislike to the Roman government. Priests and monks that swarm in the seat of ancient heroism, deviated from their habitual indolence, and were incessantly active in stimulating their votaries to outrage against the French republicans who happened to be in the papal dominions. Intelligence soon arriving of the victories of the French general, repressed these instigators of discord; but Bonaparte was too much occupied in pursuing the Austrians for the present to attend to the coercion of these puny opponents.

As the season was too far advanced for continuing warfare among the mountains of the Tyrol, Bonaparte now directed his attention to the internal settlement of Italy, and to the punishment of revolt. The power of the French republic, over all Italy, now deserted by the Austrians, was so extensive and irresistible, as to render opposition, however just, totally inexpedient; and not only useless, but ruinous. The secular princes of Italy had faithfully adhered to the treaties which they had concluded with the French republic, and were paying the stipulated contributions. The court of Rome alone was guilty of the most unwise violation of its engagements. In order more effectually to inflame the minds of the people against the republicans,^h the pope and his priests, his only counsellors, had recourse to the stale artifices and despicable tricks known by the name of *pious frauds*. They pretended the intervention of heaven, and positively asserted the performance of miracles, in many of the churches, in vindication of the catholic faith and papal supremacy, outraged and menaced by the conduct of the French. The streets were filled with processions of saints and images, who were to arrest the progress of the French

Conduct of
the papal
government.

^h Otridge's Annual Register, 1797.

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The pope
attempts to
excite war
against Bonaparte.

The
French
general
makes con-
ciliatory
overtures.

general. He who was fit to have combated a Scipio or a Cæsar, was to be overcome by friars; he whom the Austrian eagle could not withstand was to yield to the Romish owl. This ridiculous mummery, however, had its effect; though eventually very pernicious to its contrivers. In the papal metropolis there is, as among all Italians, a considerable portion of sagacity; and among the higher ranks of the laity, no small share of literature; yet those who could most easily detect and expose these impostures, would not find it safe to interfere in baulking their clerical promoters. On such occasions, therefore, gentlemen and liberal scholars, including some of the clergy themselves, carefully avoided attempts to counteract deception that was practised on credulity. At present the zeal of all classes and conditions was kindled; the populace was impelled to the utmost fury against all who did not readily believe the asserted miracles, or presumed to trust more to reason and their senses than to the infallibility of the church; manifested the most ardent eagerness to go to war against the republicans and infidels of France; and, like the mahometan bigots, they trusted to supernatural assistance in combating the enemy: a very great majority joined in preparations for war. The French envoy at Rome was active in endeavouring to convince the administration, that by perseverance in hostility they would expose themselves and their country to very great evils, which they might avoid merely by adhering to the terms of pacification: but his admonitions and remonstrances were altogether unavailing. Bonaparte desirous of conciliating the affections of the Italians, ardently wished for a pacification with the head of the Romish church, a respectful treatment of whom, he was conscious, would be highly gratifying to all the Roman catholic states and people. Resolved, therefore, to forbear coercive measures, he wrote a letter to cardinal Mattei, prime minister to his holiness, requesting him to prevail on the pope to recommend pacific negotiations, in order to prevent the march of the French armies into his territories, and to represent to him the inutility of arming his subjects against men who had overcome so many formidable enemies. To this letter no answer was made until after the battle of Arcola.

had finally crushed all hopes that the Austrians could save Italy from the French. The pope instructed his minister in his reply,¹ to state to the general the anxiety of his holiness to remedy the disorders which had so long distracted France, and to restore amity between France and the Roman see : the French, elated with the success of their arms, had made requisitions incompatible with the dictates of his conscience, and subversive of all christian and moral principles ; grieved at such intolerable demands, he had implored the assistance of heaven to direct him how to act in so difficult a situation : doubtless he was inspired on this occasion by that holy spirit which had animated the primitive martyrs in the cause for which they suffered : having laboured in vain to bring the directory to a more equitable way of thinking, he thought it necessary to resist them by open force : the death that awaited men in battle was the commencement of eternal life and happiness to the righteous, and everlasting misery to the wicked : though infidels and pretended philosophers ridicule the idea of assistance from heaven, yet, if providence were pleased to interpose, the French would contend in vain against the power of the Almighty : if the French were desirous of peace, the Roman see desired it still more, if attainable on conscientious and equitable terms. Such a letter, addressed to a victorious general at the head of a resistless army, that little regarded spiritual admonitions, was not likely to interrupt the republican career, or change their resolution. The pope, meanwhile, persisted in preparing for war, and endeavoured to interest those powers, to whose predecessors in former times, the will of a pontiff served for a law. But now, both circumstances and sentiments were totally changed : even the court of Spain, heretofore the chief prop of papal domination, sent an answer, recommending to the pope the demission of all temporal power, and the confinement of future proceedings to the exercise of the heavenly virtues.²

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Reply of
the pope.

¹ Otridge's Annual Register, 1797.

² The Spanish minister, denominated the prince of peace, replied to the pope's nuncio soliciting the interference of Spain, to the following effect : That the conduct of the court of Rome respecting the French, was temporising and insincere ; and that those who were intrusted with the administration of its political concerns, had, by their imprudence and erroneous management,

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Bonaparte
invades the
Roman ter-
ritories,

and com-
pels the
pontiff to
sue for
peace.

Amount of
the French
acquisi-
tions in
Italy in this
campaign.

BONAPARTE, finding no prospect of overawing his holiness to submission, resolved to recommence actual hostilities. Publishing a manifesto, he charged the pontiff with a breach of the convention; and turned against the papal effeminate Romans, genius, courage, and conduct, which the disciplined heroism of republican Rome, under her most consummate generals, would have found arduous difficulty in resisting. Bonaparte was too artful wantonly to shock the religious prejudices of a country which he wished to govern: having entered the Roman territories, he issued a proclamation, assuring the inhabitants that he would protect religion as well as property, and maintain the public peace: he warned them to abstain from all acts of enmity, which would certainly draw down upon them vengeance and all the horrors of war: every town and village that sounded the tocsin on the approach of the French, was threatened with instant destruction: and it was denounced that every district where a Frenchman was assassinated, should be declared hostile, and subjected to heavy contributions. The papal army having ventured to encounter the republicans, was completely defeated. Bonaparte compelled the pontiff to sue for peace,¹ to cede part of his territories, and to pay a sum that would amount to thirty millions of French livres, on account of the last rupture, besides fulfilling the conditions of the armistice in the preceding summer.

Thus, in one campaign, Bonaparte overcame four successive armies of the bravest and best disciplined troops, much more numerous than his own, commanded by skilful and able generals; extended the territories of the French republic from the gulf of Genoa to the Adriatic Sea, from the Alps to the Tiber, and her commanding influence over all Italy, where his versatile dexterity seemed to secure what his military abilities had

brought them into so critical a situation, that it seemed advisable for the preservation of the personal safety of the pope, that he should resign his temporal possessions, in order to secure the rights of the church, and to prove his disinterestedness, and the fervour of his piety, by an example that would prove so edifying to all the christian world."—See Otridge's Annual Register, for 1797, p. 12.

¹ This peace was not concluded till February 1797; but being part of a series of military and political conduct belonging to 1796, to preserve the unity of action unbroken, I have included it in the narrative of the present year.

acquired. Those who estimate conquerors merely by their warlike achievements, without considering either *the justness of the cause, or the wisdom of the pursuit*, must regard Bonaparte with high honour. He undoubtedly displayed all that combination of intellectual and active powers which rendered Alaric, Genseric, and Attila, with their respective Goths, Vandals, and Huns, irresistibly successful in subjugation and plunder. But in one instrument of iniquitous acquisition, the Corsican surpassed the northern invaders: they simply employed force, whereas he used artifice and deceit, as well as violence and rapine. But exceeding Attila, or any of his cooperators, in craft and versatility, he resembled them in sentiment. With all the intrepidity, resolution, and courage of a valiant combatant, he was totally deficient in elevation of mind, and bore no resemblance to the grandeur of a Roman, much less the Macedonian conqueror. Besides, Bonaparte found auxiliaries to which the lofty soul of an Alexander would have disdained to resort: he successfully employed money,^m as well as arms, in promoting his victories. In this his most difficult campaign, Bonaparte proved himself an able, energetic, and dexterous adventurer; but in no instance manifested either the magnanimous hero, or the wise statesman.

In Germany also the French generals displayed distinguished ability, and made very forcible exertions, though with less permanent success. Jourdain entered the empire by the Upper Rhine, while Moreau marched through Suabia. Charles of Austria, brother to the emperor, a young prince of heroic courage and great military enterprise, at this time headed the Austrian army. At the village of Ettingen, the gallant prince encountered the republican general on the 8th of July, and, after a very bloody battle, was obliged to give way to the impetuous valour of the French. Moreau was now master of Suabia, was penetrating into Bavaria; Jourdain had entered Franconia, and from the confines of Bohemia to the mountains of Tyrol the advancing chain of the republi-

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Germany invaded by Jourdain and Moreau.

The archduke Charles.

Successive battles with Jourdain.

Danger of the empire.

^m I am assured by gentlemen who resided at Vienna during a great part of the war, that it was generally thought there that many of the Austrian officers were bribed.

armies extended, menacing the invasion of Austria and the capture of the Austrian capital. The duke of Württemberg, and the other princes of the empire, who all remained in alliance with their imperial head, were now obliged to sue for peace, and to receive it from the victorious republicans on such terms as they chose to

The emperor, thus deserted by his auxiliaries, was in a dreadful consternation; but for the present the efforts of his gallant brother relieved him from his fears.

On entering the empire, the French forces had found the commonalty in general favourable to principles and projects which they conceived would reduce their domineering tyrants; but the rapacity of their exactions,^a though in some degree necessary for the supply of the troops, yet oppressive and injurious to the forced contributors; changed their attachment into hatred. After his adverse conflict with Moreau, the archduke Charles had lost no time in recruiting, collecting, and rallying his forces. Jourdain's army was now advanced near Ratisbon: prince Charles, leaving a strong body to watch the motions of Moreau, repaired with his main army against Jourdain: being daily reinforced, he after several bloody but partial conflicts, on the 28th of August, engaged Jourdain in a pitched battle, and compelled him to retreat with considerable loss. The Austrians continued to molest him as he fell back towards the Rhine: Jourdain faced and sometimes repulsed his pursuers, and at last arriving at the Rhine, repassed the river.

MOREAU, deprived of the cooperation of Jourdain, was now exposed to the whole force of the German armies, and found it necessary to retreat. A superior host assailed his rear, and a large detachment harassed his front, while the peasants rose in every direction and intercepted his convoys: but Moreau repulsed his pursuers,

^a Their levies of money, and other requisitions, excited universal alarm. The duke of Württemberg had been assessed four millions: the circle of Suabia, twelve millions, besides to furnish eight thousand horses, five thousand oxen, one hundred and fifty thousand quintals of corn, one hundred thousand sacks of oats, a proportionable quantity of hay, and one hundred thousand pair of shoes: eight millions were demanded from the circle of Franconia, with a very large supply of horses: great sums were also required from the cities of Frankfort, Wurtzburg, Bamberg, and Nuremberg, together with an immense quantity of other articles, for the subsistence and clothing of the French troops. —See Otridge's Annual Register for 1796, p. 136.

is ward off by the valour of the archduke,

who compels Jourdain to evacuate Germany.

Progress and situation of Moreau.

defeated all the bodies that opposed his march ; with masterly skill and rapid execution, changing his front according to the direction of the enemy, he by offensive operations secured his defence. Latour, a very able and enterprising general, commanded the pursuers, and notwithstanding reiterated defeats, still continued to harass the French rear. Moreau now advanced to the middle of Suabia, but still at a great distance from the Rhine, he perceived that he must again resist a general action, and unless he again defeated the Austrians who were nearest, they speedily would be joined by such numerous reinforcements, that all resistance would be vain. On the 2d of October, a select body attacked the right wing of the Austrian army posted between Biberach and the Danube : after routing this division, they advanced upon the centre, which was at the same time vigorously assailed by the centre of Moreau's army. The contest lasted six hours, and was extremely bloody on both sides : at length the Austrians gave way, and were so completely defeated, that they retired with the utmost expedition to a great distance from the field of battle. Their loss amounted to near five thousand men killed and taken, twenty pieces of cannon, several standards, and a quantity of ammunition.^o Still, however, there was a strong army between Moreau and the Rhine. He proceeded with caution and firmness through every impediment, and driving the Austrians before him, crossed the Danube. On the 9th, his army entered a defile called the Valley of Hell, from the frightful appearance of the rocks and mountains that hang over it on each side, and in many places are hardly the space of thirty feet asunder. At the outlet of the valley a powerful body of Austrians were stationed ; behind was Latour, who having again collected a considerable army, pressed the French rear ; and every inlet on each side was lined with troops, ready to assail the flanks of the republicans as they passed. To guard against this multiplicity of dangers, Moreau disposed of his right and left in such a manner, that the rear of them protected his entrance into that valley, by facing the forces under La-

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Masterly
and suc-
cessful re-
treat in the
face of the
German
host.

^o See Ottridge's Annual Register for 1796, p. 149

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1798.

Britain sig-
nally suc-
cessful
where she
fights alone

West In-
dies.

General
Abercrom-
bie retakes
St. Lucie,
and quells
insurrec-
tion in the
other isl-
ands.

Progress in
St. Do-
mingo.

tour; and the van, by advancing upon Navaudorf and Petrasch on their respective wings, obliged them to divide their strength and attention. Having made these dispositions, the French marched, in a compact order, along the valley. The enemy on the rear were repulsed; and, on the right and left, did not venture an attack of troops so prepared for terrible resistance; the Austrians, stationed in front, durst not attempt their molestation. Moreau passed the defile, marched on to Friburg, and brought his army in safety to the Rhine, by as masterly a retreat as any recorded in the annals of history.^p

DURING this campaign, the attention of the French was so much directed to land efforts, that Britain encountered little opposition in her maritime exertions, and those military enterprises which depended chiefly on naval cooperation. A considerable armament had been fitted out under general Abercrombie, to prosecute our successes in the West Indies. In April, leaving Barbadoes, he sailed to the valuable settlement of Demerara, belonging to the Dutch, which speedily surrendered to the British arms. In the month of May, he recovered the island of St. Lucie, and soon after quelled the insurrections which had been excited by the noted Victor Hughes. The British still maintained their conquests in the very valuable island of St. Domingo: the French had entirely abandoned that settlement; the people of colour and the negroes possessed the interior country, whilst the English occupied various parts of the coast. But here they had to encounter an enemy much more dreadful than the French forces, in a pestilence so fatally known by the name of the yellow fever; which having raged with most destructive violence in all tropical latitudes of the west, and extended to the northern climate of Philadelphia, and even New York, had been still more generally mortal in St. Domingo.

IN Saldanna bay, a Dutch fleet of seven sail of the line, which had sailed in hopes of retaking the Cape, was

^p The impartial historian cannot even except Xenophon's retreat with the ten thousand, since, though the space was much more extensive, the opponents were only desultory marauders, and not regular troops; the opposition was only occasional, not constant and systematic.

captured by admiral Elphinstone. The Dutch settlements in the east were reduced by our fleets; among the rest, the island of Ceylon, one of the most important possessions in European India. In the Mediterranean, the Corsicans showing themselves inclined to return to their connexion with the French republicans, Britain judged it expedient to relinquish a settlement, the expense and trouble of protecting which so totally overbalanced the advantages of the possession. At the close of the year, the French, encouraged by reports of disaffection in Ireland, and supposing our navy would be less vigilant in the winter season, made an attempt, with thirteen ships of the line, and a large body of troops, to make a descent at Bantry Bay; but the stormy season dispersing the armament, the commander in chief, who had arrived at his place of destination, returned to Brest with the loss of a ship of the line and two frigates. Thus ended a campaign, in which Britain, acting on her own element, was uniformly successful; and, without any very brilliant or difficult enterprise, made most important acquisitions. Her ally, stimulated by the British spirit, and assisted by British money, made extraordinary efforts, acquired partial advantage and signal honour; but, on the whole, incurred severe, extensive, and multiplied disasters and losses: her enemies, inefficient by sea, by land displayed military ability, attained splendid success, and warlike glory, which have been rarely equalled, and never surpassed, in the annals of history.

CHAP.
LVIII.

1796.
Capture of
Dutch
ships and
settle-
ments.

AMONG the domestic events of this year, was the birth of a princess, at present heir to the prince of Wales, and who appears likely to give to England, in the next age, a female reign. During this summer there was a general election, but with much less contention than on any former occasion throughout the eighteenth century.

Birth of a
princess,
heir to the
prince of
Wales.
General
election.

BRITISH ministers had during the recess, applied to the Danish ambassador at London, to transmit, through the Danish envoy at Paris, a declaration, stating his Britannic majesty's desire to conclude a peace, "on just and honourable conditions, and demanding the necessary passports for a person of confidence whom his majesty would send to Paris, with a commission to dis-

British go-
vernment
proposes
to send an
ambassa-
dor to
Paris to
negotiate
a peace.

CHAP.
LVIII.

1796.

France
agrees to
receive an
ambassa-
dor from
Britain,
and lord
Malmsbu-
ry is sent.

"cuss with the government there all the measures the
"most proper to produce so desirable an end." The
Danish minister having conveyed to the directory this
manifestation of the British intentions, it was replied by
the French government, "that the executive government
"would not receive or answer, from the enemies of the re-
"public, any overture transmitted through an intermediate
"channel; but that if England would send persons fur-
"nished with full powers and official papers, they might,
"upon the frontier, demand the passports necessary for
"proceeding to Paris." The court of London having
applied for passports, nominated lord Malmsbury as an
ambassador to Paris, who accordingly set out the begin-
ning of October,

CHAP. LIX.

Meeting of the new parliament—the king announces pacific intentions.—Difference of opinion on this subject between ministers and the votaries of Burke.—Burke's publication against a peace with regicides.—Earl Fitzwilliam reprobates negotiation, unless monarchy be restored.—Ministers declare security attainable without the restoration of monarchy.—Opposition declare they do not believe the ministers really to desire peace.—Apprehensions of an invasion.—Powerful and extensive preparations for defence.—Law for establishing a militia in Scotland.—Army, navy, and pecuniary supplies.—Imposts begin to be severely felt by the lower and middling classes.—Negotiation of lord Malmsbury at Paris—basis proposed by Britain, reciprocal restitution—France will not relinquish Belgium.—Abruptly requires the ultimatum of the ambassador—which he is not empowered immediately to deliver—he is ordered to quit France.—British manifesto, charging France with the rupture.—Splendid eloquence of Mr. Pitt on this subject.—Mr. Erskine's view of the causes and consequences of the war.—Reasonings of Mr. Fox.—Motions for the removal of ministers—are negatived by great majorities.—Gloomy aspect of affairs at the commencement of 1797—enormous increase of national debt—advances and state of the bank—correspondence between the bank and ministers—alarms for public credit—fears of an invasion—unusual demand for specie—rapid decrease of cash in the bank—public agitation—application to government—order of council to suspend payments in cash—the subject is discussed in parliament—opposition declare the bank to be in a state of insolvency from the insatiation of ministers—ministers allege, and the bank proves, its property far to exceed its engagements—bill to enable the bank to pay in notes instead of cash.—Complaints of the sailors—artifices of disaffected agitators—alarming

mutiny at Portsmouth—is quieted by lord Howe.—An augmentation of pay is granted by parliament.—More outrageous and dangerous mutiny at the Nore—Parker—the insurgents block up the Thames—alarm in London—the sailors at length return to obedience.—Parker tried and executed.—Law rendering the instigation of mutiny capital felony.—State of Ireland.—Lord Moira's proposed address to his majesty on the subject—negativated.—Motion for parliamentary reform, and inquiries into the state of the nation—negativated.—Marriage of the prince of Wirtemberg to the princess royal of England—portion bestowed on her highness.—Parliament rises.

CHAP. LIX.

1796.

Meeting of the new parliament: the king announces pacific intentions.

Difference of opinion on this subject between ministers and the votaries of Burke.

Burke's publication against a peace with regicides.

THE new parliament met on the 6th of October; and his majesty informed the houses that he had omitted no endeavours for setting on foot negotiations to restore peace to Europe, and to secure for the future the general tranquillity. But nothing (he observed) could contribute so effectually to this end, as to manifest that we possessed both the determination and resources to oppose, with increased activity and energy, the farther efforts with which we might have to contend.¹ On the general propriety of a negotiation, there was a division of opinion between those who had promoted the war and supported its continuance. We have already stated, that Mr. Burke, in inculcating hostility against revolutionary France, chose different grounds from ministers. In the progress of the war he had adhered to his original opinion, that the restoration of monarchy and the ancient orders, under certain modifications, ought to be the sole and avowed purpose of the war; and that no peace could be secure until that object was effected. Under that impression, he wrote his "Thoughts on a Regicide Peace," intended to prove, that the system of France was impious, enormously wicked, and destructive to all who were within its sphere: we must either conquer the revolution, or be destroyed ourselves: peace would enable it to operate rapidly to our ruin: let us, therefore, avoid peace. Earl Fitzwilliam,

¹ King's Speech, State Papers, October 6th, 1796.

the intimate friend of Mr. Burke, in a considerable degree adopted these opinions, and reprobated negotiation. To restore order (he said); to defend the civilized states of Europe against the danger that threatened them; to protect persons and property from a fatal devastation, and suppress the tendency of innovating and pernicious doctrines; were the ostensible objects of the war, and upon these principles they had supported its continuance. If it were wise to negotiate now, the same wisdom ought to have been manifested four years ago; for the causes of war, which then existed, still operated with equal force, and proved the necessity of perseverance in hostility to the French system. Ministers declared they had never stated, that the existence of a republic in France was an insurmountable bar to peace: they had expressed what they still believed, that the best issue to the contest would be, the reestablishment of monarchy in France; yet they had never pledged themselves, much less the parliament, to an opinion so extravagant, as that without the attainment of this object there was no hope or possibility of peace. They were always resolved to seek peace with France, whenever it was attainable with security. The French government now appeared to have some tendency to moderation; our own country was very much improved in point of tranquillity, which might be chiefly imputed to the wise laws against sedition and treason that had been enacted in the last session. Those who had always reprobated the war, expressed their hearty approbation of the declared intention to negotiate. Judging however (they said) from the conduct, and not from the profession of ministers, they did not give them full credit for sincerity. Mr. Pitt strongly represented, that the surest way of obtaining favourable conditions of peace, was to be prepared for war; and exhibited a very flattering account of the flourishing condition of the country, and the extent of her resources, which were increased beyond all former calculations or hopes.

A CLAUSE in his majesty's speech had declared the king's apprehension that the enemy were preparing an in-

CHAP.
LIX.

1796.
Earl Fitzwilliam reprobates negotiation, unless monarchy be restored.

Ministers declare security attainable without the restoration of monarchy.

Opposition declare they do not believe the ministers really to desire peace.

r See speeches of Messrs. Fox and Sheridan, Parliamentary Debates, October 1796.

CHAP.
LIX.

1796.
Apprehen-
sions of in-
vasion.

Powerful
and exten-
sive prepa-
rations for
defence.

Law for
establish-
ing a mili-
tia in Scot-
land.
Army, na-
vy, and
pecuniary
supplies.

vasion upon this island. Mr. Pitt very early in the session recommended adoption of measures for repelling the designed, as well as future attempts. For this purpose he formed a plan for levying fifty thousand men from the different parishes for the sea service, and another for recruiting the regular regiments. In the projected levies for the land service, he considered two objects; first, the means of calling together a land force sufficient of itself to repel an invasion, even independently of our naval armaments; and, secondly, to adopt such measures in the levies as should not materially interfere with the agriculture, commerce, and general industry of this kingdom. The primary object was to raise, and gradually train, such a force as might in a short time be fit for service. For this purpose he proposed a supplementary levy of militia, to be grafted on the old establishment, of the number of sixty thousand men; not to be immediately called out, but to be enrolled, officered, and completely trained, so as to be fit for service at a moment of danger. He also proposed to provide a considerable force of irregular cavalry, to be levied in the following manner: every person who kept ten horses, should be obliged to provide one horse, and one horseman, to serve in a corps of militia; and those who kept more than ten, should provide in the same proportion; and that those that kept fewer than ten, were to form themselves into classes, in which it should be decided by ballot, who, at the common expense, should provide the horse and the horseman: these troops were to be furnished with uniform and accoutrements, arranged into corps, and put under proper officers. The whole number of cavalry proposed to be raised by this mode was twenty thousand: the other supplemental troops amounted to seventy-five thousand men. Among the means proposed for internal defence, a bill was introduced by Mr. Dundas, for raising and embodying a militia in Scotland, and an act for that purpose was passed without opposition. The whole land forces of the country, intended for the year 1797, were to consist of one hundred and ninety-five thousand, six hundred and ninety-four; and the navy was to amount to a hundred and twenty thousand men. The pecuniary supplies of the

year were thirty-one millions borrowed, besides, the annual income.

MR. PITT still continued to display great financial skill in exempting the very lower class from the severest pressure of the new taxes, though the principal part bore very heavily on the comforts and accommodations of the middling ranks; the fresh imposts were upon tea, coffee, spirits, sugars, and various other articles of daily and general consumption; upon assessed taxes, postage, stage coaches, and canal navigation; and in the minister's plans of finance, it began to be complained that the very high and opulent did not contribute so much more than the lower classes, as the proportion of their property would have admitted.

WHILE preparations were making for carrying on the war, lord Malmsbury was at Paris conveying from his court professions of a desire to negotiate a peace. The French government, elated with the brilliant successes of the campaign, were far from relinquishing their determination to retain in their possession the whole of the left bank of the Rhine; this resolution they had intimated to Britain, and to it they were resolved to adhere. Lord Malmsbury arrived at Paris on the 22d of October. His first reception by the French government manifested a distrust of the sincerity of his employers; the negotiation was however opened by a proposition from lord Malmsbury for reciprocal restitution. Great Britain had made very valuable acquisitions, and had incurred no losses herself; seeking from war, not the possessions of her adversary, but the general security, she was willing to restore her own conquests, in lieu of the acquisitions which France had won from her allies, as a basis for a treaty: therefore Britain proposed a general principle of reciprocal restitution. The directory replied, that receiving the British ambassador as the agent of Britain only, and not understanding him to have a commission to act for the allies of Britain, they could not now enter into the concerns of those powers: the mode which he proposed of an intermixture of other discussions with a treaty, they represented to be circuitous and dilatory; but to show their sincere and ardent desire of peace, if he procured credentials

CHAP.
LIX.

1796.

Imposts begin to be severely felt by the lower and middling classes.

Negotiation of lord Malmsbury at Paris

Basis proposed by Britain, reciprocal restitution.

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LIX.

1796.

from the other belligerent states, they would take into consideration such specific proposals as he might then make. To these observations they added an opinion, that the British court was insincere in its overture; that its purposes were to prevent other powers from negotiating a separate peace; and to facilitate the attainment of the supplies from the people of England, through a persuasion that the French refused an accommodation. To this assignation of motives which, whether true or fanciful, was irrelevant to the discussion, the British minister, with becoming dignity, forbore to reply: confining himself to the answer, he stated, that he had not been commissioned to enter upon a separate treaty; that Great Britain proposed to make in this transaction a common cause with her allies. The directory rejoined, that in a question of reciprocal restitution, the chief object of consideration was the relative condition of the respective parties. Of the original confederates, some were become the friends of France, and others observed a strict neutrality. The remaining allies of Britain were now weakened by their losses, and the desertion of their associates. France, it was insinuated, would not in a negotiation of terms forget the circumstances in which she was placed. Besides the assertions and replications contained in official notes, conferences were carried on between lord Malmsbury and De la Croix, the French minister.^a In these they respectively unfolded in more detailed statements the objects and resolutions of their employers.

THE Netherlands constituted one of the principal topics of discourse. The British ambassador stated the restitution of Belgium as an indispensable article from which his Britannic majesty would not recede. From the outset indeed of the discussions, we find in his own letter, that he told the French minister that he must entertain no hopes that his majesty would ever consent to see the Netherlands a part of the French dominions. From the same official documents it appears, that the French minister proposed several schemes of equivalent for Belgium, but that lord Malmsbury considered himself as bound by his in-

^a See State Papers, December 29th, 1796.

structions to admit no proposition by which Belgium should continue annexed to France. On the other hand, the French minister declared, that the republic was resolved not to relinquish Belgium. In the course of their conference, lord Malmsbury delivered his opinions freely on certain effects of the revolutionary system, which, extending to the West Indies, influenced the conduct of some of the British islands, and produced confusion and disorder ; at length the directory agreed to the general principle of compensation, but required a specific description of the reciprocal restitutions proposed by Britain. The British ambassador stated the terms in contemplation to be, the restitution by France of her conquests from the emperor, the inclusion of Russia and Portugal in the treaty, and the restoration of the stadtholderian government in Holland. To these outlines, containing propositions so very contrary to the declared views of the French government, De la Croix answered by requiring the whole of his final demands, or, according to diplomatic language, his *ultimatum*, to be delivered in twenty-four hours. To this peremptory requisition lord Malmsbury replied, that it precluded at once all farther negotiation ; that if they disapproved of his propositions, or refused to take them into consideration, they ought to bring forward their own, that he might lay them before his sovereign. But he received no other answer than, that they could listen to no terms inconsistent with the constitution, and the engagements that were formed by the republic. They farther signified to him, that since he was obliged to consult the British ministry previously to all replies and communications, it evidently appeared that his powers were inadequate to the conduct of a treaty ; and if the British ministry were inclined to pacific measures, and determined to treat on their present plan, farther communications might be as well forwarded by an epistolary correspondence : his residence, therefore, in Paris being totally unnecessary, they ordered him to depart in forty-eight hours. This injunction was notified to him on the 20th of December ; and thus terminated the first negotiation for peace between Great Britain and the French republic.

CHAP.
LIX.

1794.
France
will not re-
linquish
Belgium.

abruptly
requires
the ultima-
tum of the
ambassa-
dor, which
he is not
immediate-
ly empower-
ed to de-
liver.

He is or-
dered to
quit
France.

CHAP.
LXX.

1793.
British
manifesto,
charging
France
with the
rupture.

THE British ministers professed to consider the abrupt conclusion of these overtures as arising totally from France, and published a manifesto,¹ on the 27th of December, setting forth the pacific dispositions of the British government, and the malignant hostility of France. "The repeated endeavours of the French government (this document states) to defeat this mission in its outset, and to break off the intercourse thus opened, even before the first steps towards negotiation could be taken; the indecent and injurious language, employed with a view to irritate; the captious and frivolous objections raised for the purpose of obstructing the progress of the discussion; all these have sufficiently appeared from the official papers which passed on both sides, and which are known to all Europe: the failure of the present negotiation arises exclusively from the obstinate adherence of France to a claim which never can be admitted; a claim that the construction which that government affects to put on the internal constitution of its own country, shall be received by all other nations as paramount to every known principle of public law in Europe, as superior to the obligations of treaties, to the ties of common interest, to the most pressing and urgent considerations of general security." On these allegations ministers justified the continuance of the war as indispensably necessary: they endeavoured to prove that the rupture of the negotiation was to be attributed to a systematical aversion to peace in the governing party in the French republic. The manifesto being laid before the houses of parliament, ministers assumed this declaration as a text, expatiated upon it in eloquent and impressive comments and suitable exhortations, and animated the indignant resentment of the parliament and country against the government of France, Mr. Pitt addressed the house in that style of splendid amplification which his oratory so happily assumes when his object is to strike the fancy, or rouse the passions. The question (he said) is not how much you will give for peace: but, how much disgrace you will suffer at the outset, how much degradation you will submit to as a preli-

Dec. 30th.

Splendid
eloquence
of Mr.
Pitt on this
subject.

¹ See State Papers, December 27th, 1793.

minary? In these circumstances, then, are we to persevere in the war, with a spirit and energy worthy of the British name, and of the British character? or are we, by sending couriers to Paris, to prostrate ourselves at the feet of a stubborn and supercilious government, to yield to what they require, and to submit to whatever they may impose? I hope there is not a hand in his majesty's councils which would sign the proposal; that there is not a heart in this house which would sanction the measure; and, that there is not an individual in the British dominions who would act as the courier. In answering the speech of Mr. Pitt, Mr. Erskine took a general view of the causes and consequences of the war with France,^u and endeavoured to prove that the ostensible was not the real grounds of the rupture; but that we were actually to be at war for Belgium. Mr. Fox argued, that the whole amount of the minister's splendid oration that night, was to admit that we had been four years engaged in a war unprecedented in expense and force, and had done nothing: after all the efforts so honourable to Britons; after an addition of no less than two hundred millions to the national debt, and of nine millions to the permanent taxes of the country; after an enormous effusion of human blood, and an incalculable addition to human wretchedness; so far were we from having gained any object for which we had set out in the war, that the minister had this night come forward, in a long and elaborate speech, to show that the only effect of all our efforts had been, that the enemy had, from success, become more unreasonable in their pretensions, and that all hopes of peace were removed to a greater distance than ever. To persevere in an undertaking productive of such prodigious expense and loss, without the least probability of advantage, or even indemnification, was altogether inconsistent, not only with wisdom but with common prudence and common sense. In private life, a person who should persevere in a ruinous undertaking, which wasted large pro-

CHAP.
LIX.

1796.

Mr. Erskine's view of the causes and consequences of the war.

Reasoning of Mr. Fox,

^u His reasonings and sentiments upon this subject were afterwards expanded in his celebrated and popular publication so very universally read, and called for in so many editions. On the acuteness, ingenuity, and eloquence of this production, as well as its candid and liberal spirit, all impartial critics bestowed high praise, whether they agreed or disagreed in his statements, reasonings, and inferences, concerning the causes and consequences of the war.

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LIX.

1796.

erty, and incurred overwhelming debts, without any returns, would be, by all men in the world, deemed an infatuated projector. The nature and character of such public conduct was the same; the consequence was, that the madness of the former involved individuals: the madness of the latter, a great, and powerful nation, in its destructive effects. In a hostile spirit against the French republic, fond to restore their beloved arbitrary monarchy, and in the face of the clearest and most decisive experience, cherished their delusive hopes, embraced the most often exploded theories, and still conceived France, exhausted by her efforts; would yield to their dictates. With these ideas and views, they had not prosecuted this war, surpassing in its miseries a glorious project of subjugating and enslaving America. Obstinate in madness, they had pretended to demand merely to induce the people to acquiesce in the terms which they so severely felt. The negotiation, appeared from its circumstances and propositions, intended to be conciliatory. The British minister categorically declared, that he could not recede from demanding the cession of Belgium; the French government as peremptorily declared, they would not recede from refusal. The French, whether wisely or not, have availed themselves of the advantages which they acquired in war. In denying to our demands the cession of Belgium, they knew they could, by their power, support that denial; whereas we insisted on a demand which we had no means to enforce. As a question of expedience, it was extremely absurd to continue the count of Belgium, so dreadful a war, when we were really certain, that all our exertions to regain it were unavailing. Our offers of compensation were inadequate to this valuable acquisition of the French. Therefore we could not reasonably hope that they would be accepted. We already saw, in the unexampled depreciation of the national funds on Lord Minto's return, the dreadful shock which public credit had received, and we might reasonably expect, that, as the pressure of the new incumbrances came to be felt, the shock

be much greater : dejection and despondency were spread through the country ; the nation was never in so deplorable and dreadful a situation. On these and similar grounds, Mr. Fox in the house of commons, and lord Oxford in the house of peers, proposed addresses to the king, representing the conduct of ministry, in the whole of the war, as ruinous ; in this negotiation, as a compound of folly and deceit ; and describing the country as hastening to destruction, through their infatuated counsels. These addresses, however, were negatived, and opposite addresses, approving highly of the general system of ministers, of the principles and conduct of the negotiation, and throwing the whole blame of the rupture upon the French, were carried by most numerous majorities.

CHAP.
LIX.

1797.
Motions for
the removal
of mi-
nisters,

are nega-
tived by
great ma-
jorities.

THE sentiments of parliament, however, concerning ministers and the public affairs, were now very far from being general. Instead of deeming the country prosperous, great numbers went into the opposite extreme, and thought it, from the grievous burdens of the war, about to sink to ruin.

IN the earlier part of 1797, the aspect of affairs was gloomy and dismal. We were involved in a war, distressing beyond all historical record, without seeing any likelihood of an end ; national credit seemed to totter from its base ; rebellion was ready to burst out in the sister island ; and, while foreign invasion threatened, those who had so long been the champions of Britain upon her own element, refused to obey orders issued for her defence, and turned their mutinous arms against their country.

Gloomy
aspect of
affairs at
the com-
mence-
ment of
1797.

THE rapid and enormous increase of the national debt, had, for two years, created an alarm among many proprietors in the public funds ; and, under this impression, sums to a great amount were sold out of the stocks, and vested in other securities. After the failure of the negotiation, the sellers became much more numerous, and the prices fell proportionably. With fears of the downfall of national credit, were joined fears for the grand national repository, the bank. Visionary as, when examined, those apprehensions proved ; there was a concurrence of circumstances which, without affecting the

Enormous
increase of
the nation-
al debt.

CHAP.
LIX.

1797.

Advances
and state
of the
bank.Correspon-
dence be-
tween the
bank and
minister.Alarms for
public cre-
dit.Fear of an
invasion.

ultimate responsibility of the most opulent body recorded in commercial history, menaced their immediate solvency according to the literal tenor of their engagements. In the course of the war, the bank had advanced immense and extraordinary sums to government, far beyond its usual accommodation to the treasury. A considerable part of these advances consisted of remittances to foreign powers, and especially to the emperor of Germany; and being necessarily in coin, instead of promissory notes, greatly diminished the gold and silver of the kingdom. So early as 1795, the directors had strongly expressed to Mr. Pitt their expectations "that he would arrange his finances for the year in such a manner as not to depend on any farther assistance from the bank." They repeated their remonstrances at different periods in the same year; and, on the 8th of October, they concluded a written representation, by stating "the absolute necessity which they conceived to exist, for diminishing the sum of their present advances to government, the last having been granted with great reluctance on their part, on his pressing solicitations." In 1796, however, the urgency of Mr. Pitt representing the pressing demands of the public service, induced them to continue large accommodations to government. In the beginning of 1797, the minister requested farther advances; and also stated, that one million five hundred thousand pounds beyond the accommodation to the English treasury, would be wanted as a loan for Ireland. On the 9th of February 1797, the directors ordered the governor to inform Mr. Pitt, "that, under the present state of the bank's accommodation to government here, to agree with his request of making a farther advance of 1,500,000*l.* as a loan to Ireland, would threaten ruin to the bank, and most probably bring the directors to shut up their doors."^x But besides the remittance of specie, and the advance to government, another cause powerfully cooperated: the dread of invasion induced the farmers, and others resident in parts distant from the metropolis, to withdraw their money from the hands of those bankers with whom it was deposited.

^x See correspondence between Mr. Pitt and the bank, *Annual Register*, 1797.

The run, therefore, commenced upon the country banks, and the demand for specie soon reached the metropolis. From Monday the 20th of February, a great run began upon the bank, which increased the 21st, and still more rapidly on the Wednesday and Thursday. The bank was extremely alarmed. On the 24th, the drafts and demands of cash for bank notes were so numerous and large, that a deputation of the directors hastened to the chancellor of the exchequer, to state the amount of cash in hands and notes demandable by bearer; and also the drafts of the preceding and present day; and to ask him how far he thought the bank might venture to go on paying coin, and when he would think it necessary to interfere, before the cash was so reduced as might be detrimental to the immediate service. Government thought itself compelled to interpose; and, on the 26th of February, an order of the privy council was issued, prohibiting the directors of the bank from "issuing any cash in payment till the sense of parliament should be taken." This subject being announced to the respective houses, the opponents and the supporters of ministers formed totally different opinions of the amount of the actual case; the former construed the discontinuance of cash payments which the national repository was pledged to perform, into an inability to discharge its pecuniary engagements; under that impression, they declared the bank of England to be in a state of insolvency and bankruptcy: this opinion was founded in the usual definitions and practices of merchants, according to which, any individual or company that did not pay his or their own notes or acceptances, was certainly insolvent as long as the disability lasted, and bankrupt or not according to its permanency. The notes of the bank had been commonly considered merely as the representatives of gold and silver; and their convertibility into coin had been regarded by the people as the criterion of their value; and thence an obstruction to the readiness of their exchange for gold or silver, was esteemed a depreciation. Ministers considered the present as a case to be viewed on great and general principles, without being confined to the daily usage of ordinary stations: the present was not

 CHAP.
LIX.

1797.
Unusual demand for specie.
Rapid decrease of cash in the bank.
The public agitation.
Application to government.

Order of council to suspend payments in cash.

The subject is discussed in parliament.
Opposition declare the bank to be in a state of insolvency, from the infatuation of ministers.

CHAP.
LIX.

1797.
Ministers
allege, and
the bank
proves its
property
far to ex-
ceed its
engage-
ments.

Bill to en-
able the
bank to
pay in
notes, in-
stead of
cash.

a question of definition, but of expediency and provi-
sion. The bank of England had been stated by its direc-
tors to possess, in its corporate property, effects infinitely
beyond all the demands to which it was subject; but, from
unfounded alarms, was not suffered to retain the usual
quantity of gold and silver: they believed this statement to
be true; and denied that if it was found so, the bank could
be justly denominated insolvent and bankrupt. Money,
whether in coin, metal, or any other material, was merely a
medium of exchange, and an agreed representative of com-
modity: where there was abundance of effects, they
would soon bring gold and silver, as well as other mer-
chandise to market.' The first step to be taken was to
ascertain the assets of the bank: for that purpose, a second
committee was proposed, and appointed in both houses in
the beginning of March. The result of the reports was,
"that on the 25th of February, the last day of paying gold
and silver, there was a surplus of effects belonging to the
bank, beyond the total debts, amounting to the sum of
3,826,890*l.* exclusive of a permanent debt of 11,666,800*l.*
due from government; that the bank of England had
lately experienced an universal drain of cash; that this
drain was owing to drafts from the country, which arose
from local alarms of invasion; that demands had been of
late progressively increasing, but particularly in the last
week; and that there was every reason to apprehend, that
these demands, and the consequent progressive reduction
of cash, would continue, and even increase, insomuch
that if it were to proceed in the same proportion, the
bank of England would be deprived of the means of
supplying the cash which might be necessary for pres-
sing exigencies of public service." Grounded on these
reports, Mr. Pitt proposed a bill, enabling the bank of
England to issue notes in payment of demands upon
them, instead of cash, agreeably to the late order of coun-
cil to that effect: and after various discussions, and sever-
al modifications, the bill was passed into a law. This
measure saved the credit of the bank, and of the public
funds, which had been injured by the alarm; recalled to

circulation the concealed hoards of the valuable metals, and made money of the various denominations much more plentiful than before. The predictions of the ablest men in opposition, that bank notes would soon be sold at a great discount, proved totally unfounded; and the interference of the privy council in the affairs of the bank, on the alarming disappearance of the precious metals, has from experience been demonstrated not only prudent, but indispensably necessary.

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SCARCELY had the public alarm from the bank subsided, when other imminent dangers occasioned dread and consternation. The soldiers and sailors of Britain had long complained of the smallness of their pay, as totally inadequate to their comfortable subsistence and accommodation, in the present diminished value of money: with these grievances, still unredressed, other causes cooperated to produce and disseminate discontents throughout the army and navy. The democratical doctrines of universal equality had been circulated by inflammatory agitators, but more especially in the navy: great numbers of political innovators entered themselves aboard the fleet; they knew the principal grievances in the estimation of sailors, to be severe punishment when aboard, and the want of means of pleasure when ashore: they, therefore, directed their animadversions to the harsh behaviour of several of the officers, and to the striking disproportion observed in the distribution of prize money.^z This inequality they represented not only as unjust, but as a proof of the contempt in which sailors were held by their officers; and yet it was evident, that, to the bravery of the seamen was principally owing the success in most engagements. The promoters of these doctrines conducted their inculcations and measures with such secrecy and sagacity, as showed very considerable ability and skill: the means employed were dexterously and comprehensively fitted to the end proposed,—the incitement of a general mutiny through the fleet.^a With so much address were their schemes conducted, that the existence of discontent was not suspected by the officers until mutiny was publicly announced. Several anonymous peti-

Com-
plaints of
the sailors.

Artificers of
disaffected
agitators.

Alarming
mutiny at
Portsmouth.

^z See Annual Register, 1797

^a Annual Register, 1797

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tions in the month of March, were sent from the channel fleet to lord Howe, begging his interference to procure such an increase of pay as would enable them in those dear times to support their families. Earl Howe, then at London, wrote to the commanding officer at Portsmouth, lord Bridport, to inquire whether there was any dissatisfaction. His lordship, after examining his officers, reported that there was none; and that it was merely an attempt of certain individuals to persuade government that the sailors disapproved of its conduct. The admiralty being informed by lord Howe of the petitions and inquiries, drew the same conclusion. But at this time it was settled by all the sailors of the channel fleet, that no ship should heave an anchor till a redress of grievances was obtained. On the 13th of April, lord Bridport ordered the signal for weighing anchor: which, instead of obeying, the sailors in the *Queen Charlotte*, lord Howe's own ship, set up three cheers, as the signal for commencing mutiny; and every other ship followed the example. The officers exerted themselves to the utmost to recall the sailors to obedience; but their attempts were unavailing. The sailors were now supreme masters of the fleet; every crew appointed two delegates to form a convention, which should carry on its deliberations in lord Howe's own cabin. On the 17th, an oath was administered to every man in the fleet, to support the cause in which they had engaged: ropes were then reefed to the yard arm in every ship, as the signal of punishment that would be inflicted on those that betrayed the cause; and several officers were sent ashore who were particularly obnoxious to their respective crews. Meanwhile, though the admiral could not lead his fleet to sea, both he and the officers were treated with the greatest respect and attention, and the whole routine of naval duties were regularly performed. On the 18th, two petitions, one to the admiralty, and the other to the house of commons, were drawn up, and signed by the delegates. The petition to the commons stated, in very respectful language and correct composition, the inadequacy of their pay (unchanged since the reign of Charles II.) to their subsistence in the present state of prices; and their inferiority in various articles to the soldiers. Their petition admiralty stated the low rate of their pay, and the

insufficiency of their allowance of provisions ; demanding an increase of both, together with the liberty of going ashore while in harbour ; and the continuance of pay to wounded seamen, till they should be cured and discharged.

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THESE proceedings so greatly alarmed government, that the lords of the admiralty went down to Portsmouth to inspect the transactions of the fleet themselves : finding the firm determination of the sailors to persist in their demands, and aware of the dreadful consequences that must ensue if the defenders of our country continued refractory, they authorized lord Bridport to inform the ship's company, that they would recommend to the king to propose to parliament an augmentation of their pay, and a redress of their other complaints. The delegate answered, that it was the determination of the crew, to agree to nothing that should not be sanctioned by parliament, and guaranteed by the king's proclamation. This declaration being made in a conference with several commanders, admiral Gardner was so irritated, that he seized one of the delegates by the collar, and swore he would have them all hanged, with every fifth man throughout the fleet. This conduct so much enraged the sailors, that the brave officer with difficulty escaped alive : the ships loaded their guns, and put themselves in a state of defence. The next day, however, they wrote a letter to the lords of the admiralty, stating the motives of their conduct on the preceding day ; and another to lord Bridport, expressing for him personally the highest respect and attachment. On the 23d, his lordship pathetically addressing his crew, informed them that he had brought with him a redress of all their grievances, and the king's pardon for what had passed. These offers being communicated to the other crews, after some deliberation, were accepted, and every sailor returned to his duty. For a fortnight the fleet remained tranquil, expecting from parliament a confirmation of their demands, but finding no steps hitherto taken for that purpose, they renewed their former menaces. Alarmed at this intelligence, government sent to quell the tumult, lord Howe, an officer universally beloved throughout the British fleet. This illustrious commander having pledged his word to the seamen that government would faithfully keep its

April 21st.

On the
17th of
May.
Is quieted
by lord
How

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An augmentation of pay is granted by parliament.

More outrageous and dangerous mutiny at the Nore.

Parker.

promises, they declared their unlimited confidence in lord Howe's assurance, and returned to their duty. A mutinous disposition which had also appeared at Plymouth, subsided upon hearing of these transactions at Portsmouth.

PARLIAMENT now proceeded to consider the case of the seamen : Mr. Pitt proposed an augmentation, which was unanimously agreed to, as necessary both in justice and in policy ; but Mr. Fox very strongly censured the procrastination of ministry, to which he imputed the renewal of the disturbances. It was hoped that these compliances of government, sanctioned by legislature, would have prevented any fresh tumults ; but a mutiny broke out at the Nore, on the 22d of May, much more outrageous and dangerous than the proceedings of the Portsmouth and Plymouth fleets. The sailors at the Nore blamed those of Portsmouth, for having omitted to insist on a more equal distribution of prize money. The crews took possession of their respective ships, chose delegates, stated their demands, including not only a much larger distribution of prize money,^b but many privileges and exemptions from duty, which were totally inconsistent with the subordination of the navy, and objects of the service. At the head of this mutiny was a person named Richard Parker, a man of good abilities, not uneducated, a bold and resolute character. The lords of the admiralty directed admiral Buckner, the commanding officer at the Nore, to inform the seamen, that their demands were totally inconsistent with the good order and regulations necessary to be observed in the navy, and could not for that reason be complied with ; but, that on returning to their duty, they would receive the king's pardon for their breach of obedience. To this offer Parker replied by a declaration, that the seamen had unanimously determined to keep possession of the fleet, until the lords of the admiralty should repair to the Nore and redress the grievances which they had stated. Meanwhile, on the 6th of June, the mutinous fleet was joined by four ships of the line, from the squadron which, under admiral Duncan, was watching the motions of the Dutch in the north sea. The lords of the admiralty has-

^b See Annual Register, 1797.

tened to Sheerness, and held a board, at which Parker and the other delegates attended : but their behaviour was so audacious, that the commissioners returned to town without the least success. Emboldened by the strength of men and shipping in their hands, and resolved to persevere in their demands till they should extort compliance, the mutineers proceeded to secure a sufficiency of provisions for that purpose, by seizing two vessels laden with stores, and sent notice ashore that they intended to block up the Thames, and cut off all communication between London and the sea, in order to force government to a speedy accession to their terms ; they began the execution of their menace by mooring four of their vessels across the mouth of the river, and stopping several ships that were coming from the metropolis. While these transactions excited great alarm in the nation, they were violently reprobated by the seamen belonging to the two divisions of the fleet lying at Portsmouth and Plymouth ; each of them addressed an admonition to their fellow seamen at the Nore, warmly condemning their proceedings, as a scandal to the name of British sailors, and exhorting them to be content with the indulgence already granted by government, and to return to their duty without insisting on more concessions than had been demanded by the rest of the navy. These warnings proved ineffectual : the delegates commissioned lord Northesk, whom they had kept confined in the Montague which he commanded, to repair to the king in the name of the fleet, and to acquaint him with the conditions on which they were willing to deliver up the ships. The petition which he was charged to lay before the king, was highly respectful and loyal to his majesty, but very bitter against his ministers ; and they required an entire compliance with every one of their demands, threatening, on the refusal of any, to put immediately to sea. Lord Northesk undertook to convey their petition ; but told them, that, from the unreasonableness of its contents, he could not flatter them with the hope of success. No answer being returned to the message, and information being brought to the fleet that the nation at large highly disapproved of their proceedings, great divisions took place among the delegates, and several of the ships de-

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The insurgents block up the Thames.

Alarm in London.

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The sailors
at length
return to
obedience.
Parker is
tried and
executed.

Law rendering
the instigation
of mutiny a
capital felony.

State of
Ireland.

serted the others; not, however, without much contest and bloodshed. The mutineers, despairing now of accomplishing their designs, struck their flag of mutiny: every ship was left at its own command, and they all gradually returned to obedience. Parker was seized and imprisoned, and after a solemn trial that lasted three days, on board the *Neptune*, he was sentenced to death. He suffered with great coolness and intrepidity, acknowledging the justice of his sentence. With him the other chief ring-leaders, after a full proof of their guilt, were condemned and executed; but mercy, either immediately, or at a more distant period, was extended to the rest. This mutiny, so much more dangerous than the disturbances in the other fleets, attracted the very serious attention of parliament, to which it was communicated by a message from his majesty: measures were adopted for preventing communication between the well affected and the present mutineers, and also precautions were employed to hinder and punish future attempts to seduce soldiers or sailors from their duty and allegiance, or to excite mutiny and sedition. With this view, Mr. Pitt proposed a bill purporting, that persons who should endeavour to seduce either soldiers or sailors from their duty, or instigate them to mutinous practices, or commit any act of mutiny, or form any mutinous assemblies, should, on conviction, be deemed guilty of felony, and suffer death.^c The duration of the act was limited to one month after the commencement of the next session; and the law at the present crisis, was so evidently necessary that it passed by an unanimous vote. Having suppressed this insurrection of the sailors, government turned its attention to the army, which complained of the smallness of pay. An increase had been granted about two years before, and now a farther augmentation was established by which every soldier was to receive a shilling per day.

GREAT discontents prevailed at this time in Ireland, which ministers imputed to the dissemination of jacobinical principles; and opposition to the system of government which had been adopted since the recall of earl Fitzwilliam. Ministers represented the country as having been almost

^c See Acts of Parliament, 1797.

in a state of rebellion : insurrection had been prevented by the firmness of government, and could be hindered in future only by a continuance of the vigorous measures which were now employed. The opponents of ministers denied that the Irish people were disposed to rebellion ; and declared there existed great discontents, arising from the arbitrary, coercive, and unconstitutional system of the Irish government, tending to drive the people of Ireland to rebellion.^d Earl Moira moved an address, praying his majesty's interference to allay the discontents in Ireland. The motion was resisted, first, as an interpolation of the British legislature in Irish affairs, contrary to the independence of the Irish legislature ; secondly, as mischievous, since it tended to render the Irish disaffected towards their own parliament and government, whose conduct was the most conducive to their welfare that could possibly be adopted. Motions of a similar nature were made in the house of commons, and rejected upon similar grounds. In supporting their respective propositions, lord Moira and Mr. Fox reprobated the present system of administering Ireland, described the various classes and sects of men whom the system of terror tended to alienate, but especially the catholics in the south, and presbyterians in the north. The arguments however did not influence government, which continued to approve of a system that was styled by its supporters provident and wholesome firmness ; by its opponents, violent and impolitic tyranny : but the full illustration of the grounds of these contrary opinions, will be found in the narrative of the Irish rebellion in the following year.

THE ministers, since the rupture of lord Malmsbury's negotiation, had greatly declined in popularity, and numerous petitions were presented to the king for their dismissal. Induced by the calamitous events of the war, and encouraged by the sentiments which were now becoming prevalent, their opponents proposed, in both houses of parliament, addresses^e to his majesty to remove from his

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1797.

Lord Moira proposes an address on the subject to his majesty. His motion is negatived.

Motions for the removal of ministers.

^d See Parliamentary Debates, 1797.

^e The respective motions were made by the earl of Suffolk in the house of peers, March 27th ; and by Mr. alderman Combe in the house of commons, May 19th. The former limited his proposition to the dismissal of the first lord of the treasury ; the latter included all the cabinet ministers. See Parliamentary Reports for 1797.

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are nega-
tived.

Motion for
parliamentary re-
form.

Marriage
of the
princess
royal.

Parliament
rises.

councils his present servants. The grounds both of attack and defence were the same that had been so often discussed in many propositions, and various forms, and included the commencement and continuance of war; its conduct and events; the rupture of the negotiation; the management of finance; the enormous addition of debt and taxes; and the distresses of the nation: with the replies often repeated. The motions were respectively rejected by both houses.

MR. GREY, this session, renewed his propositions of parliamentary reform: and his scheme was more definite and explicit than at preceding periods: that the number of county members should be increased from ninety-two to a hundred and thirteen, eligible not only by freeholders, but by copyholders and leaseholders; and that the other four hundred members should be chosen by all householders. The arguments for and against the proposition, were, with some new details and illustrations, the same that had been so repeatedly employed. Near the close of the session, a motion was made in the house of peers for an inquiry into the state of the nation; but opposed by ministers, as intended to produce a change of measures, which change they affirmed would be ruinous to the country.

IN the course of this session, Charlotte Matilda, the princess royal, a young lady of great beauty and accomplishments, and highly distinguished for ability, knowledge, and literary taste, was married to Frederic William, hereditary prince of Wirtemberg. On the 18th of May, the ceremony was performed by the archbishop of Canterbury, assisted by the archbishop of York, in presence of the royal family. Our sovereign gave the hand of his amiable and beloved daughter to her destined husband. The domestic sensibility of that affectionate and happy family, was very striking and impressive on an occasion that was to separate them from so dear a member: fraternal, sisterly, and above all, parental feelings, when combined with the character and relations of the illustrious personages, rendered the scene at once solemn and pathetic. Her highness received a portion of eighty thousand pounds. Parliament rose the 20th of July, after having sitten between nine and ten months.

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Campaign of 1797.—Operations in Italy—settlement of Italy—displays the political abilities of Bonaparte—Address and versatility of Bonaparte—attempts to revolutionize the minds of the people.—He marches against the Austrians.—The archduke Charles is appointed general of the Austrians.—Formidable armies of the archduke and Bonaparte.—After successive victories, Bonaparte advances towards Vienna—Bonaparte offers peace to Austria—a negotiation is opened.—Bonaparte changes the government of Venice—and of Genoa.—Treaty of Campo Formio—iniquitous disposal of the territories of Venice.—Britain only remains to combat the ambition of France.—France proposes to overmatch our navy, exhaust our finances, and excite rebellion—mighty preparations in the ports of Spain, France, and Holland—and plan of the naval campaign.—Distribution and disposition of the British navy—admiral Jervis encounters a Spanish fleet of superior force off St. Vincents—able and dexterous scheme for dividing the enemy's force—bold and masterly execution—decisive and important victory—totally disconcerts the plans of the enemy.—Powerful armament equipped by the Dutch—proposes to join the French at Brest—opposed by admiral Duncan—battle off Camperdown—Duncan, fearless of a lee shore, breaks the enemy's line—the British fleet gains a most brilliant victory—admirals Jervis and Duncan are called to adorn the peerage.—This year, repeating the lesson of former wars, shows France and her allies the futility of contending with the navy of England.—Internal state of France—the royalists revive—alleged conspiracy—arrestation and banishment of the suspected persons without any proof.—New negotiation for peace—Lord Malmsbury sent to Lisle—propositions on the part of Britain—preliminary requisitions of France—farther demands—propose entire restitution without any equivalent.—Lord Malmsbury

declares so unreasonable a proposition totally inadmissible—French temporise and pretend a disposition to modification—dilatory pretexts of, until their internal changes were fixed—resume their proposition of restitution without any equivalent—Britain refuses such dishonourable conditions—lord Malmsbury ordered to depart.—The rupture of this negotiation unquestionably owing to France.—Causes of the hostile disposition of France.—Discontents in Scotland—misapprehension of the militia bill—riots—alarming tumults in Perthshire—illustrating the operation of democratic principles—leaders fortunately ignorant, though daring—riots quelled.

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LX.

1797.
Campaign
of 1797.

Operations
in Italy.

Settlement
of Italy,
displays
the political
abilities
of Bonaparte.

ENCOURAGED by the signal successes of the former year, the French republic made most powerful dispositions for commencing the campaign against Austria. The progress which she had effected by her land operations, she apprehended also enabled her to devote a considerable portion of her efforts against the maritime power of England. Having the direction of the navies of both Spain and Holland, her plan was to employ the united force of these countries with her own, in an attempt to deprive Britain of the dominion of the ocean, whilst her military energies continued to be exerted in extending the acquisitions of the former campaign. Italy had been the great scene of her military success, though not the sole field of her military glory. In that quarter the republic determined most strenuously to push her advantages, without invading Germany on the side of the Rhine. Bonaparte, having driven the Austrians from Italy, and quelled insurrection at Rome, before he resumed his pursuit of the enemy, devoted his attention to civil arrangements. He proposed to give the northern Italian states such strength as would eventually enable them, in dependence upon France, to sustain themselves against the attacks of Austria on the one side, or of Rome on the other. In the former year, a republican confederation had been framed under his auspices, composed of the four cities of Reggio,^f

^f The geographical reader will recollect that there is another Reggio, much more noted, in the southern extremity of Italy (the ancient Rhegium). The Reggio, mentioned in the text, is a few leagues from Modena, nearer the Po.

Modena, Bologna, and Ferrara, on the southern confines of the Po. This scheme he now extended, and formed two republics on the model of the French constitution; the Transpadane, consisting of the states on the north, and the Cispadane, of the states on the south, of the Po. The population of the countries on the north and south of the Po, that composed the two republics, was computed at upwards of four millions. This was amply adequate to their defence against their neighbours, without requiring the assistance of France, which would only be needed to protect them from the hostile designs of Austria; and thus they would soon be able to cooperate in resistance. The influence of France in Italy would henceforth be established on the surest foundation, the necessity of adhering faithfully to it by those states that depend on it for their preservation. In order to conciliate the minds of the people to republican institutions, Bonaparte carefully attended to those rules and manners which republicans adopt and value. He cautiously avoided all ostentation, and, in his personal demeanour, readily put himself on a footing of perfect equality with all persons of decent situations in society: hence he acquired a number of friends, not only among the French, but among the Italians, who had hitherto experienced little of that condescension, especially from the Germans, who seldom studied to make their authority acceptable among the natives.⁵ One great purpose of his expedition was to revolutionize the minds of the Italians, the better to fit them for those changes in their various governments that would assimilate them to the system of France. This end he completely attained, and established his influence very extensively in Italy. The solicitude he manifested, in effecting and consolidating the federal union between the republics, of which he had encouraged the foundation, more than any other circumstance, raised his fame and credit among the Italian politicians, who had long wished for the revival of such systems in their country, recollecting how much it had formerly flourished under their influence. Having completed his civil arrangements,

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1797.

Address
and versa-
tility of
Bonaparte.

He at-
tempts to
revolution-
ize the
minds of
the people.

⁵ See Otridge's Annual Register for 1797, p. 21.

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He marches
against
the Aus-
trians.

The arch-
duke
Charles is
appointed
general of
the Aus-
trians.

Formida-
ble armies
of the arch-
duke and
Bonaparte.

Bonaparte now resumed military operations: he proposed to pursue the enemy in the Tyrol; to drive them before him to Vienna, and either to dictate peace, or capture the metropolis and overwhelm the power of Austria. Meanwhile the Austrians were making preparations, not for longer disputing the empire of Italy, but for defending their country. Animated by that generous and indignant patriotism which strains every nerve to resist foreign invaders, they made most formidable efforts to vindicate their independence, which they now conceived to be at stake. Generals of ability, skill and reputation, the Austrians possessed; but as the first purpose was not to conduct armies, but to inspire and invigorate the people, and to recruit the exhausted force, the primary consideration was, from their many capable generals, to select one in whom the nation reposed the greatest confidence. The conduct and successes of the archduke Charles, in compelling the republican armies to evacuate Germany, raised the public voice in his favour. All their other great commanders had been defeated; he alone was victorious: to render his appointment supremely popular, this single circumstance was sufficient. He was nominated commander in chief against Bonaparte, and all possible vigour and expedition were employed in equipping an army adequate to the service. The patriotism, honour, and loyalty of the brave Germans, stimulated them to flock to the standard of the gallant young prince.^a If this were to be their last effort in defending their country, they were resolved it should be an effort worthy of the Austrian glory. In the end of February, prince Charles took the field. Valiant and meritorious as this young commander was, yet unequally was he matched when placed opposite to Bonaparte. He brought enterprise and heroism to combat enterprise and military talents, supported by a victorious army, elated with success, and confident of future victory. The soldiers of the archduke were chiefly new raised, whereas Bonaparte commanded veterans. New troops, however valiant, engaged against a disciplined army, inspirited by enthu-

^a Annual Register, 1797, chap. ii.

alism, and so long accustomed to uninterrupted triumph, were and must be inferior. The archduke Charles was unequal to his opponent, because their respective forces were not equally habituated to war; commanding recruits against victorious veterans, the magnanimous youth found himself overmatched, like Hannibal in similar circumstances. After various conflicts, one battle was fought near Tarvis,ⁱ in which the Austrians were completely and decisively defeated: a line of French armies, severally headed by Massena, Bernadotte, and Joubert, with the principal force under the immediate command of Bonaparte himself, extending from the Tyrolese mountains to Carniola, rapidly proceeded towards Vienna. The Austrians, repeatedly vanquished, renewed the contest; the republicans still advancing, reduced the strong fortresses of Carniola and Carinthia; and having entered Stiria, were within a hundred miles of the Austrian capital. Charles again made a stand at Hundmark, upon the river Murh, but was again defeated: this last army by repeated losses being entirely broken, no means appeared to remain of defending Vienna, but by terminating the war. With some renowned heroes war appears to have been at an end; with Bonaparte, war seemed only a means; and when triumphant, he uniformly professed to offer peace. After the last victory, he wrote a letter to the archduke Charles, expressing a desire of accommodating a contest, which was ruinous to the vanquished, and wasteful to the conquerors. "Brave soldiers made war, but desired peace: the war had now lasted six years; men enough had been slaughtered, and evils enough committed against suffering humanity." The archduke declared himself equally desirous of peace, and sent Bonaparte's letter to Vienna: a suspension of arms was appointed. One part of the consummate policy of Bonaparte. consisted in offering liberal terms to a vanquished enemy. With a view to secure a permanent peace with the emperor; he proposed such conditions as might have even satisfied alternate victory; and a negotiation was opened at Campo Formio.

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1797.

After successive victories, Bonaparte advances towards Vienna.

Bonaparte offers peace to Austria.

A negotiation is opened.

ⁱ Annual Register, 1797, p. 26.

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1797.
Bonaparte
changes
the govern-
ment of
Venice,

WHILST this treaty was pending, Bonaparte directed his views to the situation and conduct of Venice;^k which republic had long viewed with dissatisfaction the victorious progress of the French in Italy. The house of Austria, though at all times formidable, had never been an object of terror to Venice, not even when it united Spain and Germany in the same family. The turbulent and restless disposition of the French, and their propensity to democratical innovation, alarmed the Venetian aristocracy which feared that the changes might extend to the subversion of their authority: they took no open share in the contest, but they favoured the imperialists, and rendered them as much service as they could without avowing hostilities against their adversaries. Bonaparte was far advanced into Austria, and reports were spread that the French army had been drawn into a defile, and were about to capitulate: the Venetians believing this rumour, in an evil hour sent a large army of their desultory troops to attack the posts which Bonaparte had left in Italy. In executing these orders, the Venetians massacred the French wherever they were to be found. Being informed of the outrages, Bonaparte ordered a great body of troops to march into the Venetian territories. The republicans easily defeated such opponents; and, on the 16th of May, took possession of the city of Venice. Bonaparte established a new government on the French model, instead of the aristocracy which had lasted for so many centuries, and acquired such eminence among European nations: he also compelled them to pay a contribution amounting to upwards of three millions sterling.

and of Ge-
nova.

IN Genoa also the nobles were friendly to the Austrian cause, but the people were attached to the French, and desirous of a popular government: Bonaparte, soon after the revolution of Venice, established a democratical government in Genoa; but as the nobles had never been active in hostility, and did not oppose the change, they escaped exactions. Meanwhile, the negotiation at Campo Formio was proceeding, the preliminaries were signed in

^k Annual Register, 1797, chap. iii.

the month of July, and the definitive treaty on the 17th of October.¹

By the peace of Campo Formio, the emperor ceded in full sovereignty to the French republic, the whole of the Austrian Netherlands; and consented to their remaining in possession of the Venetian islands of Corfu and Zante, Cephalonia, and all their other isles in the Adriatic, together with their settlements in Albania, situated in the southeast of the gulf of Lodrino: he acknowledged the republic, newly constituted under the name Cisalpine, to be an independent state; he ceded to it the sovereignty of the countries that had belonged to Austrian Lombardy, and consented to its possessing the cities and territories of Bergamo, Brescia, and others, late the dependencies of Venice; together with the dutchies of Mantua and Modena; the principalities of Massa and Carrara; and the cities and territories of Bologna, Ferrara, and Romagna, lately belonging to the pope. The cessions of the French republic to the emperor were Istria, Dalmatia, with all the Venetian Islands in the Adriatic, lying to the northwest of the gulf of Lodrino, the city of Venice, with a large portion of the dominions of that republic, chiefly those lying between the Tyrol, the lake of Guarda, and the Adriatic. Besides these public articles, there was a secret convention, by which it appears the dismemberment of the Venetian territories was determined, and the emperor was to compensate his losses in the Netherlands by the iniquitous seizure of dominions before independent. Here, indeed, the emperor chose for his model his neighbours of Russia and Prussia.

ONE enemy now only remained to oppose the victorious career of the French republic, but that was the most formidable that they did or could encounter. Having now at their command the navy of Spain as well as that of Holland, the French government proposed to combat Britain upon her own element: naval warfare, however, was only a part of their intended hostilities. Their objects in their contest with England were principally three; to overmatch our navy, exhaust our finances, and excite rebellion.

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LX.

1797.
Treaty of
Campo
Formio.

Iniquitous
disposal of
the territo-
ries of Ve-
nice.

Britain only remains to combat the ambition of France. France propose to overmatch our navy, exhaust our finances, and excite rebellion.

¹ See State Papers, Oct. 17th, 1797.

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1797.

Mighty preparations in the ports of Spain, France, and Holland, and plan of the naval campaign.

Distribution and disposition of the British navy.

Admiral Jervis encounters a Spanish fleet of superior force off St. Vincent. Able scheme for dividing the enemy's force:

bold and masterly execution:

In the earlier part of 1797, the circumstances of England appeared favourable to the realization of these hopes: the bank was, as we have seen, represented by very eminent senators as insolvent; the sailors were mutinous, and great discontents prevailed, especially in Ireland. Immense preparations were made in the ports of Spain and Holland. The French plan of the naval campaign was, that the greater part of the Spanish navy should be formed into one armada, sail early in the spring to Brest, join the French ships, meet a powerful Dutch fleet, and bear down upon England with more than seventy sail of the line. As it was the policy of France to effect a junction of the three naval armaments, so it was the policy of England to keep them separate. Admiral Duncan was appointed to watch the motions of the Dutch in the Texel, and sir John Jervis to intercept the Spaniards on their own coast; the Spanish fleet consisted of six ships of a hundred and twelve guns, one of a hundred and thirty-two, reckoned the largest vessel in Europe; two of eighty-four, and eighteen of seventy-four guns: the squadron destined to oppose this armada, amounted to fifteen ships of the first, and some frigates. On the 14th of February, cruising off cape St. Vincent, Jervis descried the hostile fleet; so inferior in force, the British admiral saw that his policy was to divide the enemy: rapid in executing as well as wise and bold in planning, he formed his line with wonderful despatch, passed through the Spanish fleet, separated one-third of it from the main body, and by a vigorous cannonade compelled it to remain to leeward, and prevented its junction with the centre till the evening. After having thus broken through the enemy's line, and, by this daring and fortunate measure, diminished his force from twenty-seven ships to eighteen, he perceived that the Spanish admiral, in order to recover his superiority, was endeavouring to rejoin the ships separated from him, by wearing round the rear of the British lines; but commodore Nelson, who was in the rearmost ship, directly wore, and by standing towards him prevented his design. He had now to encounter the Spanish admiral of one hundred and thirty-two guns, aided by two others, each of them three deckers: he was happily relieved from this danger-

ous position by the coming up of two ships to his assistance, which detained the Spanish admiral and his seconds, till he was attacked by four other British ships; when, finding that he could not execute his design, he made the signal for the remainder of the fleet to form together for their defence. The British admiral, before they could get into their stations, directed the rearmost of them, some of which were entangled with others, to be attacked, and four were captured. In the mean time, that part of the Spanish fleet which had been separated from its main body had nearly rejoined it, with four other ships, two of which were not in the engagement: this was a strength more than equal to that which remained of the British squadron, fit, after so severe a contest, for a fresh action. The Spaniards, however, would not adventure to face the British force in close battle, and retreated. The victorious squadron of Britain carried off the four captured vessels, two of them bearing one hundred and twelve guns, one eighty-four, and the other seventy-four. The slain and wounded on board of these, before they struck, amounted to six hundred; and on board of the British squadron to half that number: the killed and wounded on board the other Spanish ships were also computed to amount^m to about six hundred. The vanquished fleet withdrew to Cadiz, whither it was immediately followed by the victors, who blocked it up in so close a manner, that not one of the numerous ships of force belonging to Spain in that capacious harbour durst venture out beyond the reach of the many powerful batteries that were erected for its defence. There the British squadron commanded the seas, and took many prizes. Various attempts were made to bombard Cadiz, under the immediate direction of commodore Nelson, and in one of them great execution was done. Thus the victory of Jervis entirely disconcerted the plan of the three allied powers.

decisive
and impor-
tant vic-
tory.

Totally dis-
concert the
plans of the
enemy.

THE Dutch made mighty preparations, with a view, it was supposed, of joining the Brest fleet, and invading Ireland: but, the vigilance of admiral Duncan rendered it impracticable for them to venture out of port without

^m See London Gazette extraordinary, for March 3d, 1797.

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Powerful
armament
equipped
by the
Dutch;
propose to
join the
French at
Brest:
is opposed
by admiral
Duncan.

Battle off
Camper-
down.

Duncan,
fearless of
a lee shore,
breaks the
enemy's
line.

The Brit-
ish fleet
gains a
most bril-
liant vic-
tory.

risking an engagement. A violent storm having arisen about the autumnal equinox, obliged Duncan to return to Yarmouth to repair his ships: the Batavian government ordered admiral De Winter to sail with all possible expedition, hoping they might proceed so far on their way to Brest that it would be impracticable for Duncan to prevent their junction with the French fleet: but they soon found it would be impossible to elude the vigilance of our admiral. Apprized by the signals of his advanced cruisers that the Dutch fleet had left the Texel, Duncan, on the 10th of October, sailed from Yarmouth roads: reaching the coast of Holland late in the evening, he stationed his squadron so as to prevent the enemy from regaining the Texel. On the 11th of October, early in the morning, he descried the Dutch fleet formed in a line of battle, about nine miles to leeward between Egmont and Camperdown. To prevent them from approaching nearer the shore, Duncan resolved to break their line: this movement was speedily executed, and, about twelve o'clock, a close action began, wherein admiral Duncan's division attacked the van of the Dutch, and admiral Onslow the rear. The ship mounted by Duncan lay near three hours alongside of the Dutch admiral De Winter, and the conflict between these two brave commanders was remarkably obstinate and destructive. The latter did not strike his flag till all his masts were overboard, half of his crew was slain or wounded, and it was utterly impossible to make any more resistance. The Dutch vice-admiral yielded to admiral Onslow, after he had been reduced to the same condition, and all the Dutch ships that struck had defended themselves with equal bravery, being almost every one totally disabled. About four in the afternoon the battle terminated in a decisive victory to British valour and British skill. Our fleet, by this time, was within five miles of the shore, and in no more than five fathoms water; so that the admiral's chief care now was to prevent his victorious fleet from being entangled in the shallows. This necessary precaution, and the approach of night, compelled him to discontinue the pursuit, which saved a remnant of the enemy's fleet: no fewer, however, were captured than

eight ships of the line, two of fifty-six guns, and two frigates. The loss of men, on both sides, in this bloody and well fought battle, was very great: in the British squadron it amounted to seven hundred; but in the Dutch, to twice that number; and they were the choicest of their seamen. Naval critics impute this victory to the united boldness and judgment which carried the British fleet between the enemy and the shore. It is indeed an instance of a position which the series of facts in this history illustrates, that, TO BRITAIN ENGAGED IN WAR, THE MOST ADVENTUROUS COURAGE IS THE WISEST POLICY. This grand victory entirely overturned the naval projects of France. The two illustrious admirals, who in their respective stations broke the maritime power by which France had expected to invade and annoy England, besides the praise and gratitude of the nation, received the honour of the peerage, with the titles taken from the scenes of their respective victories: Jervis was created earl St. Vincent, and Duncan viscount Duncan of Camperdown. These were the chief naval transactions of a year, that so strongly repeated the lesson of former wars, that France or her auxiliaries waste their efforts in seeking to humble the navy of England.

DURING this year, great internal dissension manifested itself in France; the royalists were becoming so powerful, as to rouse the jealousy and apprehension of the republicans. At a new election of the national councils, a considerable proportion of members friendly to royalty, was returned; among these were Pichegru with his friends and adherents. Bonaparte, on the other hand, though at a distance from Paris, was the strenuous supporter of directorial government. Angereau, one of his generals, a brave and enterprising officer, and beloved by the soldiers, undertook to support the directorial leaders in their attempts to crush the royalists. Having concerted measures for striking a decisive blow, Barras, Reubel, and Lareveillere, three of the directors, intrusted Angereau to repair to the national council, and arrest sixty of the deputies whom they charged with conspiracy for reestablishing royalty. Among the accomplices they included Carnot and Barthelemi, the two remaining directors.

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Admirals Jervis and Duncan are called to adorn the peerage. This year, repeating the lesson of former wars, shows France and her allies the futility of contending with the navy of England. Internal state of France. The royalists revive.

Alleged conspiracy.

execut-

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 Arrestation and banishment of the suspected persons, without a proof.

ed his commission on the 4th of September, with the most summary and decisive expedition: the specified deputies were arrested, and also Barthelemi; Carnot made his escape. The directory published addresses to the French people, declaring that this arrestment was necessary to the salvation of the republic. As a great majority of the people was attached to a republican form of constitution, they were easily persuaded that the conduct of the directory was right and expedient. The directors having asserted their superiority and present stability, professed themselves disposed to lenient punishment, and that they would not suffer any blood to be spilt; but that the chief conspirators should be transported. In opposition to these professions of mercy, it was answered, that the directory grossly transgressed the first principles of justice; that the alleged conspirators were never tried; and that instead of a free constitution, the government was an arbitrary oligarchy, rendering the property, liberty, and life of every Frenchman dependent on the directors, and the army which was at their devotion.

New negotiation for peace.

MEANWHILE, attempts was made by the British government to renew the negotiation for peace: an official note, dated the 1st of June, was sent to the French minister for foreign affairs, intimating a willingness to enter into a negotiation for the reestablishment of peace, and, for the regulation of preliminaries, to be definitively arranged at a future congress. The answer of the directory expressed an equal disposition to pacific measures; but signified, at the same time, a desire that negotiations should at once be set on foot for a definitive treaty. The directory was anxiously intent upon giving the law to England, as it had done to other countries, and was desirous, for that purpose, to remove all obstructions that must have arisen from a junction of the common interests of its allies together with its own. In transmitting the passports for the expected minister, they specified that he was to be furnished with full power, to negotiate a definitive and separate treaty. As the republican party and the army were paramount in France, the government depending upon their support for its own stability and power, it was necessary in conducting the negotiation to regard the

opinion and sentiments of both. The republicans were solicitous that no concessions should be made favourable to the interests of royalty or its partisans, either in France, or even its proximity. The soldiers and officers were no less anxious, that the vast acquisitions made by their valour should be retained ; and, that after so many victories, the fruits of their exploits should not be relinquished. Neither disposed nor able to thwart these inclinations, and guided by similar sentiments, the directory sent their minister to meet lord Malmsbury, at Lisle. The British ambassador proposed the plan of pacification which his constituents had formed. This scheme demanded from Spain a cession of the island of Trinidad ; and from the Batavian republic a cession of the cape of Good Hope, Cochin in the East Indies, and its possessions in Ceylon. On these conditions, an entire restitution would be made, on the part of Great Britain, of all that it had taken from France and its allies, in the course of the war. It required that the prince of Orange's property should be restored to him, or an equivalent in money be allowed ; and that France should engage to procure for him at the general peace, a compensation for the loss of his offices and dignities in the united provinces. The queen of Portugal should also be included in this treaty, without being subjected to demands of any kind. On the part of France, the minister required as preliminaries to any treaty, first, a full and unequivocal recognition of the French republic ; secondly, that the king of Great Britain should henceforward desist from assuming the title of king of France ; monarchy having been totally abolished by the French, they could no longer permit any claim, though merely nominal and inconsequential, to remain in the possession of any prince ; and therefore expected and required that it should be relinquished by the British monarchs in future ; thirdly, that the ships taken by the English at Toulon should be restored, or an equivalent for them, and those that had been destroyed. The French republic was acknowledged in the addresses of the British ambassador to its plenipotentiary.^b The renunciation of the title of

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Lord Malmsbury is sent to Lisle. Proposition on the part of Britain.

Preliminary requisition of France.

^b See successive State Papers between lord Malmsbury and the French plenipotentiary, at Lisle, in July, August, and September, 1797.

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Farther
demands.

The
French
propose
restitution,
without
any equiv-
alent.

Lord
Malmsbury
declares
so unrea-
sonable a
proposition
totally in-
admissible.

The
French
temporise,
and pre-
tend a dis-
position to
modification.

king of France, lord Malmsbury deemed a claim hardly worthy of serious reasoning. The demand of the restitution of the captured ships, was a matter of real importance; he, therefore, by the instructions of his court, forbore giving any decisive answer, until the French should state their propositions, or, in diplomatic language, their *contre project*. The French note stated another preliminary, more important and comprehensive than any of the former; that England should engage to make an entire restitution of all the possessions it had taken, not only from France, but from Spain and the Batavian republic: they required the ambassador to accede to this proposal, and if already not sufficiently authorized, to despatch a messenger to the British court, in order to procure the necessary powers. The argument on which they founded this peremptory requisition was, that the treaties between France and its Spanish and Batavian allies respectively guaranteed to each other the territories they possessed previously to the war. Lord Malmsbury declared such an imperious and unqualified demand must speedily break the negotiation, as it proposed cession on the one side, without any compensation on the other: if this were the resolution of the directory, the negotiation was at an end; and it only remained for Great Britain to persevere in maintaining, with an energy and spirit proportioned to the exigency, a war that could not be ended but by yielding to such disgraceful terms. The French ministers hinted, that some modification might be devised, and professed to apply to the directory for fresh instructions. The whole month of August passed without any decisive answer from France: the republican negotiators, in frequent conference with lord Malmsbury, intimated that the directory was endeavouring to dispose its allies to terms more consonant to the views of England. Lord Malmsbury was fully aware that these pretences were totally unfounded, and that both Spain and Holland were driven to hostilities by the power of France, and were desirous of peace: nevertheless, he yet continued to wait a positive answer. For a fortnight more the procrastination continued: meanwhile the republican party completely accomplished their purpose of subjugating their

adversaries; and immediately after the revolution of the 4th of September, new ambassadors were appointed to negotiate with lord Malmsbury. These ministers, after some prefatory professions of the desire of the French government for peace, peremptorily repeated the impracticability of a negotiation, except on the principle of complete restitution on the part of Britain, without any compensation.^q Finding Britain, in the plenitude of power and resources, would not accede to such dishonourable conditions, the French government ordered lord Malmsbury to depart from Lisle. Whether the rupture of the first negotiation is imputable to Britain or France, is a subject which admits of such very strong arguments on both sides,^r that the impartial historian, satisfied with stating the facts, will not rashly give judgment; it was indeed a question of prudence, balancing probabilities, was, or was not the retention of Belgium by France so important as to counterpoise the miseries of war? If it was, were our means of compelling its restitution such as to render success likely? In the second negotiation, we were not merely called to acquiesce in possessions acquired by the French, and which it would be evidently difficult to extort from them by force; but to relinquish, without a compensation, our acquisitions, which they could not extort from us by force. Here the historian may safely give judgment, that the hostile conclusion of the second negotiation arose from the French republic. We have uniformly seen that peace is the permanent interest of the two first nations of the world; and that every war has left both the conquered and the conqueror in a worse situation than they would have been if no contest had arisen: national rivalry unfortunately produced animosity and enmity, and overwhelmed all views of mutual and reciprocal interest. This hostility had been strongly inflamed by the events of the present war. Irresistibly triumphant over all other enemies, France had experienced the most powerful and effectual opposition from

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1797.

Dilatory pretexts of, until their internal changes are fixed. Resume their proposition of restitution without any equivalent. Britain refusing such dishonourable conditions, lord Malmsbury is ordered to depart. The rupture of this negotiation is unquestionably owing to France.

Causes of the hostile disposition in France.

^q See in State Papers, 1797, the notes and conferences between the respective ambassadors, from the 15th of September to the 1st of October, 1797.

^r See Erskine on the causes and consequences of war, and answer by John Gifford, esq. also, answer by John Bowles, esq.

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England: not only resentment, nor even ambition, but pride stimulated her to show herself superior in combat to England as well as to the rest of the world. Republican energy inspiring and invigorating immense military force, afforded, she conceived, the means of humbling, or even subjugating, her most formidable and potent rival. Their recent victory over interior adversaries enabled the government to employ its spirit, resources, and instruments, without interruption, against the only enemy which the total dissolution of the coalition had now left. These inclinations were cherished by their most brilliant and captivating orators: England was represented as another Carthage, long paramount in opulence, and in power resting upon that opulence; but which France, as another Rome, would overwhelm by superiority of military strength. These sentiments and ideas impressed in both the government and the nation, contributed powerfully to the dismissal of lord Malmesbury, and to the persistence in war with England.

Discon-
tents in
Scotland.Misappre-
hension of
the militia
act.
Riots.Alarming
tumults in
Perth-
shire.

THE spirit of discontent which had existed both in England and in Scotland, with a fluctuation of increase and decrease ever since the first diffusion of the revolutionary doctrines, this year was in Scotland brought into alarming action, by a misconception of the militia act: misrepresented by jacobin demagogues, many of the ignorant peasants appear to have considered it as a press act, compelling the persons drawn to become soldiers. Various partial tumults arose in the manufacturing towns as well as agricultural villages and districts in the low countries of Scotland, and were not suppressed without the intervention of military force. These, however, possessing neither unity of design nor system, were without much difficulty quelled through the vigilance of the magistrates aided by military activity. In more sequestered districts, where soldiers were rarely stationed, tumult, and indeed insurrection, rose to such a height as to overpower the civil magistrates, and, for a time, to suspend all regular government. In the highlands of Perthshire, on the banks of the Tay and its tributary rivers, and in the adjacent glens and fastnesses of the Grampians, the common people were remarkable for industry, sobriety, and

other virtues^s that render this useful station respectable :
 pious and attentive to the essential duties of religion,
 without the puritanical fanaticism of some of the adjacent
 districts. They were characteristically respectful to the
 higher ranks ; in some cases even to the submissiveness
 of feudal ideas, and beyond the necessary subordination
 of regular liberty. As, however, they advanced in civili-
 zation and knowledge, agricultural skill, successfully ex-
 erted, in various instances produced independence of situa-
 tion ; independence of sentiment began to follow ; and,
 about the commencement of the French revolution, they
 had reached a very proper medium between servility and
 arrogance, and were what British peasants may always be
 wished to continue. Intelligent and inquisitive, they
 were anxiously desirous to know the state of public affairs :
 newspapers found their way into those recesses, and they
 became extremely interested in the transactions of the con-
 tinent.^t When the contest seemed to be between the
 mass of the people and their former lords, their minds,
 being alive to such discussions, were the more easily im-
 pressed by the works of Thomas Paine, which were studi-
 ously spread among them, as well as the rest of our coun-
 trymen. At first they did not clearly apprehend what
 benefits "The Rights of Man" held forth ; but under-
 stood its scope in general to be the redress of all grievan-
 ces under which they might fancy themselves to labour.^u
 Those highlanders were, in most respects, contented with
 their lot, and, for several years, were not driven to dissa-
 tisfaction, though they gradually relaxed in deference to
 their lay superiors, and also to their clergy, whom they
 had hitherto regarded with peculiar veneration. The
 country not affording provision for all its natives, many of
 these migrate to more productive districts, whence some
 of them returning to visit the habitations of their fathers,
 bring back with them the ideas of their new residence.
 Hence principles and doctrines of Glasgow and of Paisley

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^s See Statistical Accounts of the parishes of Blair, Moulin, Logierate, Little Dunkeld, Weem, Dull, and Fortingal.

^t See Statistical Account of Little Dunkeld by Mr. John Robertson, clergyman of the parish, written in 1792.

^u They first conceived that Tom Paine was to put an end to *excisemen*, whose office, enhancing the price of the favourite beverage, whiskey, is peculiarly unpopular.

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1797.
Causes and
Instigators.

found their way to Athol. Somewhat before this time, two noted agitators, named Menzies and Cameron, having returned to the highlands from the chief scenes of Scotch conventionalists, pitched their abode in a populous part of the districts in question; there they actively disseminated the revolutionary ideas, and made very great progress among their countrymen; and, by the beginning of 1797, had succeeded in inclining the people to dislike the constituted authorities, and to wish for a revolution: but though these fellows were laying the train, matters did not appear fit for lighting the match. Such was the state of things when the report of the militia act reached the country, together with very exaggerated accounts of the resistance of the people in the south. About the 1st of September, the populace were all in a ferment, and then only did the gentlemen receive any intimation of the spirit that was predominant. In two days the country was a scene of tumult, and even insurrection: the mob visited the house of every magistrate, clergyman,* or other gentleman of respectability, and proffered them oaths and engagements to join in opposing the militia act; but such still was the influence of habitual ideas, that they drew up those compulsory stipulations *on the stamps required by the law for legalising agreements*: in their violation of all law, they rendered homage to the conventional and social securities which law establishes. The mob threatened recusants with the destruction of their houses; and, to show themselves prepared for conflagration, carried with them fire and combustibles; and the watchword, which they roared with infuriate yell as they approached the seats of gentlemen, was "straw and burning coals?" Most of the gentlemen, to preserve their property, yielded to the mandates of the mob, and professed to incur obligations that could not be binding, and there being no military force, did not attempt a resistance, which, if the insurgents were resolute, must have certainly proved destructive: a few argued with some reason, that persons so new to riot and out-

* Their treatment of one clergyman of the most estimable character, advanced in years, brought on an illness that terminated in his death, long before the previous vigour of his constitution taught his friends to expect his decease.

rage could not immediately proceed to atrocity; they therefore refused to make a promise which they did not intend to perform; and some gentlemen made very vigorous dispositions for defence. The event demonstrated that, in the precise circumstances of the case, repugnance was the most effectual; resolute refusal was followed by no outrage, whereas concession to lawless demands produced more violence, and much insult. As the insurgents proceeded, they assumed a considerable degree of organization; the respective rioters, in their operations, changed districts, so as to be less easily recognised, should order return, and judicial inquiry be instituted. The first exercise of the legislative functions with which they had invested themselves, they proposed to be the annihilation of three classes of men, clergymen, lairds (landholders), and excisemen, and thus to commence revolution by the abolition of religion and revenue, and the confiscation of property. Fortunately for the peace of the country, their leaders, though active and daring, were not able; and prematurely exulting in success, through their own security, were the more easily surprised and arrested in a career which was hurrying on to rebellion.

THE chief person in that part of Scotland, from rank, fortune, and his official situation as lord lieutenant of the country, was the duke of Athol: his house was in considerable danger, but was preserved by a mixture of prudence and resolution, the most efficacious that could be employed in encountering a mob that was furious in violence, without being desperate in atrocity. The rioters had advanced to a park wall that separates the public road from a lawn before Athol house, and urged their demands in a tone of imperious dictation. The duke explained to them their misconception of the act, calmly expostulated with them on their conduct, and advised them to return to the occupations of the season. Many of his hearers were disposed to listen to this salutary advice, but others, more outrageous, would persevere; and some of them threatened to break into the grounds, and set the

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The reader, by recurring to vol. iii. p. 343. will see a striking resemblance between the objects of the French peasants in 1789, and these highlanders in 1797.

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house on fire. Lord Henry Murray, brother to the duke, agreeably to the prompt execution of military procedure, proposed an immediate attack upon the insurgents, with the servants, adherents, and guests of the family, and a small party of light horse that was at hand: but his grace was averse to a measure which must have produced the effusion of blood, and might drive the populace to desperation. Finding them about to enter the grounds, he gave directions to load and point cannon that were placed in the lawn for festive occasions, with all the arms of his house to be in readiness; with much danger to himself, he walked to the paling, and told the rioters that, if one of them entered his grounds, he would order a general fire. Finding them intimidated by his resolution, he, after some time, resumed a milder strain, and appealed to feelings which, though suspended, he knew were not yet extinguished; and at length they departed, though not without leaving an apprehension that they might be brought back by Menzies and Cameron, who were believed to intend coming to the same place the following day, with a very large body, from an equally populous district as Athol; and the next was expected to be a very critical day: but the prompt measures which were contrived or adopted by his grace, disconcerted the insurgents. The ringleaders, apprehending no interruption from government, passed the night at their respective habitations with as confident security as if they had returned to enjoy repose after the fatigue of lawful business. The direct roads between their mansions and the station of any military force, were all either possessed or observed by their friends and votaries. The duke, aware of this circumstance, sent the light horse, not above twelve in number, by a circuitous route across the mountains; which, not being suspected, he naturally conceived would not be watched. The party, with professional expedition, arrived, before daybreak, at the place of their destination, seized the fellows, and escorted them in a chaise along the road to Edinburgh. The intelligence spread instantaneously through the country, where the people were before hastening to the place of rendezvous. And here I cannot avoid mentioning a circumstance which shows

how naturally men, totally unacquainted with military occupations, adopt the schemes of soldiers in circumstances that appear to them to require force, either for defence or aggression. The object of the populace was to rescue the ringleaders : expresses were despatched to have the defiles seized, so that smaller bodies might detain the convoy until the great mass of the people should arrive. The different passes were beset with a skill worthy of regular soldiers ; and though the insurgents could not obstruct, they considerably retarded the dragoons, who were unwilling to proceed to extremities as long as they could be avoided. The mob, with considerable judgment, spent no more time at smaller defiles in opposing the escort, than to enable great numbers to press forward to that on which they fixed as the chief position of resistance. This was a bridge over the Bran, a rapid river that falls into the Tay, that may be considered as one of the entrances to the ghauts of the Grampians. There the insurgents, besetting the bridge, seized the horses of the carriage. The mob were many thousand in number : the commander used every peaceable effort in his power to persuade the populace to let the party pass without opposition ; but finding all unavailing, he ordered his men to form for a charge. The rioters seeing the swords drawn and ready for action, and being hitherto the votaries of speculative error rather than of practical guilt, as much awed by the crisis that must begin bloodshed and rebellion as intimidated by the danger, suffered the carriage to pass on, and to proceed to the seat of justice. The ringleaders being seized, the misguided peasants returned by degrees to their usual occupations. This insurrection caused a dreadful alarm, not only in the scene of its operation, but throughout Perthshire and the neighbouring counties. Though being quelled in a short time, it was less memorable in event than at one time it threatened, yet it appears to me sufficiently important to deserve historical record : it illustrates the close connexion between levelling doctrines and revolutionary attempts. It farther proves that, in tumults which arise from mischievous error rather than criminal intention, implicit concession is far from being the most effectual policy ; submission to even absurd claims of the

1. The first part of the document is a list of names and titles, including "The Hon. Mr. Justice" and "The Hon. Mr. Justice".

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State of public opinions and sentiments at the meeting of parliament.—Effects of British victories, and the haughty conduct of France.—Discontent is much less prevalent than in former years—the nation regards the continuance of war as unavoidable, and bravely resolve to meet the exigency—the king publicly states the progress and rupture of the negotiation—the nation in general is disposed to support government.—Meeting of parliament—encouraged by the public sentiment, the minister adopts a new scheme of finance—he proposes to alleviate the funding system by raising a great part of the supplies within the year—and projects a multiplication of assessed taxes, which he presumes to be a criterion of income—details—arguments against and for—voluntary contributions proposed by Mr. Addington—the finance scheme is passed into a law—liberal contributions of all ranks and conditions—redemption of the land tax—object to absorb a large quantity of funded stock—plan of national defence introduced by Mr. Dundas—voluntary associations—the whole nation becomes armed against foreign and domestic enemies—revival of the alien bill—apprehensions of an invasion.—Motion of the duke of Bedford for the removal of ministers—is negatived—prorogation of parliament.—Rebellion in Ireland—treatment of Ireland from the latter years of the American war—the penal statute against catholics repealed—the catholics desire a participation of political privileges, which is refused—effects of the French revolution—united Irishmen—Wolfe Tone—professed objects, reform in parliament and catholic emancipation—real object—progress of—counter association of Orange men—catholic defenders—French mission to Ireland—proposed plan of insurrection to facilitate a French invasion—apprehension of Jackson, and discoveries through him—hopes of the catholics from the appointment of lord Fitzwilliam—consequences

of his recall—farther progress of the united Irishmen—they send ambassadors to France—vigilance of the British government—martial law is proclaimed—mission of Macknevin to France—his proposed scheme of military operations—the whig party propose conciliatory measures—which are rejected as inapplicable to the case—proclamations and proffers of pardon—are totally disregarded—the united Irishmen concert measures for a general insurrection—disappointed by Duncan's defeat of the Dutch fleet—want of concert between the Irish conspirators and the French republic—arrestation of the delegates—hurries on rebellion before their designs were ripe—rebellion—insurgents near Dublin—are subdued—alarms insurrection in Wexford—successes of—at length are defeated—rebellion is suppressed in the south—insurrection in the north—advances, but is subdued—lord Camden desires to be recalled—marquis Cornwallis is appointed his successor—wise policy of—the French attempt to revive rebellion—are vanquished—squadron defeated by sir John Borlase Warren—Irish rebellion extinguished.

CHAP.
LXI.

1797.
State of public opinions and sentiments at the meeting of parliament. Effects of British victories, and the haughty conduct of France. Discontent is much less prevalent than in former years.

IN England discontent was much less prevalent than in former years. The signal victories of our naval commanders gratified the national sense of honour and glory, and promised security against foreign invasion; the reappearance of gold and silver proved the responsibility and extensive property of the bank, and dispelled apprehensions concerning national credit. The desertion of our allies, while it stimulated the energies of the country, pleased its patriotism, as our efforts were to be entirely for ourselves. The abrupt termination of the embassy at Lisle, that obviously arose from the determined hostility of France, roused indignant resentment against an enemy which durst presume to dictate to Britain. The nation in general deemed the continuance of the war now a measure of necessary self-defence, and was disposed to make the greatest exertions. With most patriots the question no longer was, were we prudent in going to war, or might we not before this time have made peace; but we are now in a situation of great difficulty and danger, how can we best extricate ourselves?

To common sense the answer was obvious : as the enemy will not make peace upon admissible terms, we must continue to fight. Before the meeting of parliament his majesty published a declaration, stating the progress, difficulties, and result of the negotiation ; and showing that its rupture was owing to the unreasonable demands of France ; calling on Britons to exert themselves adequately to the difficulty of the contest, and the importance and value of the objects at stake : he trusted that the resources of his kingdoms, and the spirit of his people, would vindicate the independence of their country, and " resist with just indignation the assumed superiority of an enemy against whom they fought with the courage, the success, and the glory of their ancestors : and who aimed at nothing less than to destroy at once whatever has contributed to the prosperity and greatness of the British empire ; all the channels of its industry, and all the sources of its power ; its security from abroad, its tranquillity at home ; and, above all, that constitution on which alone depends the undisturbed enjoyment of its religion, laws, and liberties." Still his majesty was disposed to conclude peace upon the same equitable terms which he had now proposed. This address, appealing to the best feelings, most powerful sentiments and dearest interests of Britons, had a very general effect, which his majesty's speech at the opening of parliament, tended strongly to increase. Ministers showed very clearly that the continuance of the war, by the rupture of the negotiation at Lisle, was owing to the enemy, not to Britain ; thence they justly inferred the necessity of extraordinary efforts. Parliament, in an address to the throne, said, WE KNOW THAT GREAT PREPARATIONS ARE NECESSARY : WE ARE PREPARED TO MAKE THEM : and the public in general coincided in this opinion and resolution. Aware not only of the state and circumstances of the nation, but of the sentiments and determination which recent events had diffused through the country, ministers from the joint result formed their schemes of finance, of internal vigilance and defence, and external arrangements. The antecedent efforts of Britain had pro-

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1797.
The nation regards the continuance of war unavoidable, and bravely resolves to meet the exigency. The king publicly states the progress and rupture of the negotiation.

The nation in general is disposed to support government.

Meeting of parliament.

Encouraged by the public sentiments, the minister adopts a new scheme of finance.

a State Paper, October 25th, 1797.

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1797.

He proposes to alleviate the funding system, by raising a great part of the supplies within the year, and projects a multiplication of assessed taxes, which he presumes to be a criterion of income.

Details.

duced immense expenditure, and an enormous increase of debt, which added to the burden of taxes, contributed to the depression of the funds, rendered loans if not more difficult as to the attainment of principal, yet more disadvantageous as to the rate of interest : this was one ground on which the enemy rested their expectations. To render these hopes vain, to prevent the necessity of such an additional loan as would farther depress the funds, and to confirm public credit, was one of the primary objects which called for the attention of the legislature. The funded debt was already so great, that to add to it all the supplies that were necessary for the year, would have been extremely inconvenient, and would have postponed an evil that must increase by continuance, instead of meeting it immediately and boldly. The minister, therefore, proposed to raise a capital within the year, in order to prevent that increase of permanent debt from which the enemy expected the downfall of our credit. It was wise (he said) to sacrifice a part, even though a considerable part, for the preservation of the whole. With this view he proposed to treble the assessed taxes ; the greatest contribution, he calculated, would not exceed a tenth part of the income of the highest class of those by whom it was to be paid : to prevent evasion, not future but past assessments were to be made the basis of the new contribution ; because the most impartial evidence that could be obtained of the ability of each individual to contribute to the exigencies of the state was the amount of his expenditure before he had any temptation to lower it that he might elude the impost. The minister divided the assessed taxes, already paid, into different classes ; those who were charged for male servants, carriages and horses, luxuries of life, were to pay for both these articles of luxury, and for their houses, windows, clocks, watches, the necessities and conveniences of life, a sum varying according to their former amount from treble to quintuple. Those who paid for houses, windows, clocks, and watches, were charged an additional duty from one-fourth to five times the former amount, in proportion to its magnitude, from whence the ability of the contributor was inferred. Thus he whose assessed taxes before amounted to one pound, was to pay

by this new plan, only one pound five ; but he that before contributed fifty, by this new scheme, was to pay two hundred and fifty. But as large houses and numerous windows were, in many employments, instruments of production or trade, a very considerable abatement was allowed in such circumstances ; and the utmost contribution was no more than double the amount of the former assessments. There was besides, allowed to persons whose income did not exceed two hundred pounds, a gradation of reduction ; the highest new assessments were to be one-tenth of that sum descending to sixty pounds, which was to contribute only a hundred and twentieth part ; and incomes below that sum were to contribute nothing towards the additional impost. Thus whatever the establishment was, even if it included male servants, horses and carriages, a person whose income did not exceed two hundred pounds, was not liable to pay more than twenty pounds of additional assessment.

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LXX

1798.

DURING the former session, Mr. Fox had absented himself from parliament, together with several other gentlemen of opposition, declaring their attendance totally unwilling : on the discussion of the assessed taxes, however, both he and Mr. Sheridan made their appearance. The arguments of these illustrious senators,^b as well as their opponents to government, embraced grounds not immediately relative to the subject which was before parliament. Before they investigated the proposed scheme of finance, they contended that ministers throughout the year had demonstrated such incapacity and infatuation, that parliament ought to pledge itself to no measures for supporting government, until they received an assurance that ministers would be dismissed ; they ought not to vote such enormous sums to be levied from their constituents, without security that the present weak and wasteful stewards were no longer to be intrusted with the management. Their reasoning they followed with strictures on the financial merits of this new scheme of pecuniary provision : it was, they said a requisition the same in principle with the exactions of Robespierre ; and from its

Arguments
against
Fox.

^b See Parliamentary Debates, Dec. 1797.

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1797.

Voluntary
contribu-
tions pro-
posed by
Mr. Ad-
dington.
The fi-
nance
scheme is
passed into
a law.

Liberal
contribu-
tions of
all ranks
and condi-
tions.

retrospective operation, much more iniquitous ; it was a change of system imposing an immense burden without promoting any advantage. The funded system was not exhausted : the difficulty attending great loans was, the difficulty of providing the interest ; but how could ministers insist upon this, when they were ready to impose so large a sum on the country in one year ? The measure would be as oppressive in its operation as it was unjust in its principle. Ministers answered, that the funded system was not abandoned, as only a comparatively small part of the supplies this year were to be raised by the new mode ; that assessed taxes resulting from probable expenditure, were a fair criterion of income ; and that the various modifications would prevent the apprehended inconveniences of the operation. An additional clause was proposed by Mr. Addington, allowing voluntary contributions, and adopted ; and the finance scheme, after being farther combated in the house of peers, with this annexation, on the 12th of January, 1798, was passed into a law. Voluntary contributions commenced from the most opulent classes and individuals : the first personage in the nation manifested his love to his subjects and his country by a sacrifice amounting to one-third of his personal income. The highest in rank cooperated with the most abounding in wealth : the nobility, the gentry, and farmers contributed very liberally, according to their respective stations and circumstances : the civil professions joined in the patriotic effort : the navy and army vied with each other in that species of exertion for a king and country, which their professional services and personal dangers had so strenuously and successfully defended, secured, and vindicated. Corporate bodies united with individuals ; tradesmen and mechanics followed the example of bankers, merchants, companies, and corporations ; journeymen and menial servants made such exertions as manifested their attachment to the king and constitution, under whom the fruits of industry are as sacred to the menial as to the greatest merchant ; his rights and property to the labourer as to the lord. Nor were the contributions confined to men : the fair sex joined their donations for the service of a country in which their situation is preeminent.

ly respectable ; a preeminence arising from the superiority of their virtues and accomplishments, joined to the superior discrimination of those who appreciate the British female character^c. The highest personage set the example, an example that was liberally followed by her sex : even children sacrificed a great part of their means of gratification and amusement, to prove their zealous love for a country and constitution which they were themselves one day^d to support ; and as they were to receive it from their fathers, to transmit it unimpaired to their posterity.^d The amount of this contribution, calculated at about a million five hundred thousand pounds, was of less consequence as a fund of supply, than as a manifestation of the public resolution. Besides these supplies, there was a loan of seventeen millions, and Mr. Pitt now proposed a financial measure for the redemption, or rather the commutation, of the land tax : its object was, to absorb a large quantity of stock, and in the process to transfer a great portion of the national debt into a landed security. The quantity of stock thus transferred was in its amount to equal, at least, the quantity of land tax, which, by this means, should be extinguished, and become applicable to the public service. The amount of the land tax is two millions sterling ; the minister proposed to set it up at twenty years purchase, when the three per cents. were at fifty with a proportionable rise of purchasage according to their increasing price. Forty millions sterling, the present amount of the land tax, at twenty years purchase, would amount to eighty millions three per cent. stock at fifty, affording an interest of 2,400,000*l.* and leaving a clear gain to the revenue of 400,000*l.* a year. To simplify the operation, the purchase was to be made in stock, and not in money : the proprietor was to have the opportunity of preemption, as the land tax was not to be offered to sale to third persons until the expiration of a certain period, to be given to the proprietor of the land to make his arrangements for the

Redemption of the land tax.
Object to absorb a large quantity of funded stock.

^c For a detailed account of the subscriptions, see the periodical journals of the times, copied from the lists which were officially published at the royal exchange, and in other parts

^d The contributions were considerable, both from public schools and private academies ; of which last I remember various instances very honourable to the pupils and preceptors.

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1798.

purchase; afterwards it was redeemable by the proprietor, on replacing to the original purchaser the same quantity of three per cent. stock which he paid as the price of his purchase.^e Even if gentlemen of landed property were not able to raise the sum necessary for the purchase of his tax, without selling a part of his land for that purpose, he would still find the operation extremely advantageous. Were he to sell in order to purchase his land tax, for his land he would receive twenty-eight years purchase at the average value; he would only have to pay twenty for his land tax, so that he would be a clear gainer of eight years purchase. This scheme encountered strong objections, the most important was, that, "by consenting to vote the land tax perpetual, instead of bestowing it annually, parliament would give up one of the great checks which it had in the privilege of voting or withholding the public money." It was farther said to be intended to benefit the moneyed interest at the expense of the landed, but these objections were overruled, and a bill conformable to Mr. Pitt's scheme was passed into a law.

Plan of national defence introduced by Mr. Dundas.

WITH financial resources, parliament considered and devised other means of defence. A plan for the security and protection of the realm was drawn by Mr. Dundas, and introduced into parliament in the form of a bill. Its object was to encourage loyal and patriotic associations for the defence of the country; to enable the lords lieutenants of counties to embody those who might be willing to come forward for the protection of their laws, religion

Voluntary associations.

and property. The bill was passed into a law, and produced very speedy and extensive effects; loyal associations to arm in their country's defence, which had before been confined to particular places, now became universal.

The whole nation becomes armed against foreign and domestic enemies.

The whole kingdom, and every one of its parts, exhibited those constitutional guardians, resolute to defend their king and country against foreign and domestic enemies. To make their resolution effectual, the volunteers learned the use of arms, and paid an equally implicit obedience to the officers of their recommendation as if they had been under military law. While the members

^e For a minute and detailed explanation of this subject, see Wright's *Week-miner*, for the 19th of March, and the 7th of May, 1798.

of the volunteer corps were zealous to increase their skill, activity, and numbers, zeal did not transport them beyond the bounds of prudence: the use of the military exercise depended upon the character and dispositions of the persons that made it a study; therefore a strict inquiry was instituted into the behaviour and political sentiments of those who proposed to be members. In London and the adjacent districts, two housekeepers of known integrity, respectability and constitutional loyalty, testified the qualifications of the candidates: throughout the kingdom, that, or some other mode of a similar kind, was adopted for ascertaining eligibility. The persons chosen after this investigation were men, who in their variety of stations, had the welfare and honour of themselves, their families and friends, involved in the welfare and honour of their country: whose private and public affections and interests led to the same conduct; from whom their aged parents, beloved wives, and infant children, called for the same exertions as their king and country. Another measure of preventive policy, for the defence of the kingdom, adopted in the course of this session of parliament, was the revival of the alien bill. It was introduced in the house of commons on the 29th of March, and having undergone some amendments, passed on the 27th of April. The clauses added to the alien bill, were for obliging the letters of lodgings to give regular accounts to government of the foreigners who resided in their houses: and for enabling his majesty to detain foreigners; and to prevent aliens from landing in Great Britain, until the master of the vessel had authority to let them come on shore. On the 20th of April, a message was brought to the house of commons from his majesty, stating the advices he had received of great preparations for invading his dominions; and that in this design the enemy was encouraged by the correspondence and communications of the traitorous and disaffected persons and societies of these kingdoms. In such circumstances legislature deemed it expedient to renew a bill for detaining suspected persons. Mr. Wilberforce this session renewed his motion, for the abolition of the slave trade, but his proposition was rejected; several regulations however were

Revival of
the alien
bill.

Apprehen-
sions of an
invasion.

**CHAP.
LXI.**

1798.

Motion of the duke of Bedford for the removal of ministers, is negatived.

Prorogation of parliament. Rebellion in Ireland. Treatment of Ireland from the latter years of the American war.

The penal statutes against the catholics repealed.

The catholics desire a participation of political privileges, which is refused.

Effects of the French revolution.

made for alleviating the sufferings of the Africans in their passage, and a law was enacted for the purpose. In the course of the session, the duke of Bedford made a motion for an address to the king, to remove ministers: the debate on this subject necessarily consisted of arguments often repeated; and his proposition was rejected.

IRELAND was a subject of frequent inquiry and animadversion; but ministers represented the circumstances as too critical for public discussion; and, on the 29th of June, parliament was prorogued. Before the prorogation, the storm which long had been gathering in Ireland at length burst out, and the sister island became a scene of rebellious uproar. Having seen the fatal effects of coercion that was attempted towards the colonies, the British minister, from the latter years of the American war, adopted towards Ireland a much more liberal and enlightened system of policy. The penal statutes against the Roman catholics were repealed; they held their land on the like terms with the protestants; they enjoyed, in short, every right and franchise in common with the former, saving only the offices of state, and the privilege of sitting in parliament. The Irish catholics deemed themselves injured by the restrictions which continued, instead of being favoured by the relief bestowed; and desired a participation in the privileges that were still withheld. The protestants, considering the catholics as still unaltered, conceived that the admission of a sect so superior to their own in number, to an equality of privileges, would be eventually a surrender of their own acquisitions and possessions: outnumbering them and overpowering them in parliament, the catholics might claim and recover the possessions of their ancestors, of which they very naturally deemed the protestants usurpers. The lower classes of catholics, grossly ignorant and superstitious, and governed by their priests, were inflamed with the greatest rancour against the protestants, whom they abhorred as heretics, as well as detested as interlopers. These were their relative sentiments at the time the French revolution began to agitate all the neighbouring countries. Whatever sentiments might be entertained of the concomitant excesses, the revolution itself was im-

pated to the obstinate perseverance of the old govern-
 ment in its abuses. When the extraordinary events hap-
 pened, on the 10th of August 1792, which overturned
 the French monarchy, the hopes of the reforming parties,
 both in England and Ireland, were equally elated: they
 now thought their wishes would infallibly be accomplish-
 ed; and that the dread of the people would operate so
 powerfully upon their rulers, that these would hardly
 venture any longer to reject their demands, with such
 terrifying consequences before their eyes, of the king of
 France's opposition to popular demands. To promote
 the changes which they desired, certain persons formed a
 society to which they gave the name of United Irishmen.^f
 This institution, projected and organized by Wolfe Tone,
 proposed to connect the whole Irish nation together, with
 the professed purpose of a general melioration of their
 condition, by a reform of parliament, and an equalisation
 of catholic with protestant privileges, without any excep-
 tions civil or political. The plan of union was formed
 on unity of object, connexion of instruments, and a co-
 operation of means, that combined secrecy of proceeding
 with efficacy of counsel and conduct. No meeting was
 to consist of more than twelve persons; five of these
 meetings were represented by five members in a commit-
 tee, vested with the management of all their affairs: from
 each of these committees, which were styled "baronial,"
 a deputy attended in a superior committee, that pre-
 sided over all those of the barony or district.^g One
 or two deputies from each of these superior commit-
 tees, composed one of the whole county, and two or
 three from every county committee composed a provincial
 committee. The provincial committees chose in their
 turn five persons to superintend the whole business
 of the union: they were elected by ballot, and only
 known to the secretaries of the provincial committees,
 who were officially the scrutineers. Thus, though their
 power was great, their agency was invisible, and they
 were obeyed without being seen or known. Whether
 the designs of these associates were originally to effect a

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1792.

 United
 Irishmen.

 Wolfe
 Tone.

 Professed
 objects, re-
 form in
 parlia-
 ment, and
 catholic
 emancipa-
 tion.

^f See reports of the committees of the Irish parliament, 1797 and 1798.
^g See reports of the committees.

CHAP.
LXI.

1798.
Real object and progress of

Counter association of Orangemen.

Catholic defenders.

French mission to Ireland.

Proposed plan of insurrection to facilitate a French invasion.

complete separation of Ireland from Britain, has not been ascertained as a fact; but there is no doubt that, in the progress of their concert, they had formed such a project;^b and that parliamentary change, and catholic emancipation, were only pretexts with the heads and principal agents of this confederacy, in order to unite the greater numbers in the execution of their designs. The protestants, persuaded that whatever their purpose might be, the ferment which they were agitating must be inimical to the existing establishments, under the protection of which they held their privileges and property, formed counter associations, and assumed the name of *Orangemen*, in honour of king William, the vindicator of protestant security, and the establisher of protestant property and power in Ireland. The Orangemen proposed to disarm the catholics. Bodies of these associated to resist the attempts, and assumed the name of *defenders*. Between the Orangemen and defenders various feuds took place, accompanied with great disorder, ferocity, and depredations, with some bloodshed on both sides. The united Irishmen did not immediately amalgamate with the defenders, who were rather violently outrageous than systematically designing. In them, however, they saw ready and willing instruments, when their own deep laid schemes should be mature for open and avowed execution. Neither the prevalent broils, nor the several machinations, were unknown to the French rulers; they despatched one Jackson, a native of Ireland, and a protestant clergyman, but now an emissary of France, as a spy, to Britain and to Ireland, in order to sound the dispositions of the people. Jackson, in Ireland, formed a connexion with Wolfe Tone, Hamilton Rowan, and some of their associates, and proposed a plan of insurrection, in order to facilitate a French invasion. In England, Jackson had trusted his treasonable schemes to an intimate friend, one Cockayne, an attorney. This person communicated the projects to Mr. Pitt; and undertook to accompany his friend to Ireland, in order farther to discover his intentions and plots

^b See reports of the committees of the Irish parliament, especially the committee of 1798.

to government, from which he was to receive the sum of three hundred pounds, if, through his means, the capital conviction of his friend should ensue.ⁱ Cockayne being thus engaged to accompany his friend to Ireland, and pretending to participate in the plot, was introduced to Rowan and other conspirators. A plan was formed for concerting a French invasion of Ireland: Jackson wrote several letters to correspondents abroad, explaining the state of Ireland, and the outlines of the project. The letters being sent to the postoffice, Cockayne, who had perused them all, gave information to government: the letters were seized; Jackson was tried; Cockayne was the sole oral evidence; but the papers coinciding with his testimony, rendered the case so clear, that the jury without hesitation found the defendant guilty. Jackson was condemned to die; but by suicide anticipated execution. By this discovery the correspondence with France was suspended: Tone and Rowan made their escape. Lord Fitzwilliam was now arrived in Ireland, commissioned, as he conceived, to terminate all disputes in that country, by making the concessions which the Roman catholics demanded. Such also was the general persuasion of the Irish themselves: but as it was frustrated, and lord Fitzwilliam recalled, the discontents became deeper and more extensive than ever. From this time the united Irishmen proceeded with more despatch and decision in their arrangements; a military organization took place in the several provinces; arms were procured, pikes fabricated, and every preparation was made to enter upon the execu-

CHAP.
LXI.

1799.

Apprehension of Jackson, and discoveries through him.

Hopes of the catholics from the appointment of lord Fitzwilliam. Consequences of his recall.

ⁱ From what has been already said about messrs. Goelin, Taylor, &c. the witnesses in the state trials of 1794, the readers, I trust, have perceived the absolute necessity often imposed in conspiracies, on the most upright ministers, to employ spies and informers. Cases may even occur, as Cicero has well shown in his offices, in which a person is bound by conscience and duty to become an informer; but not for hire. How far Mr Cockayne's motives would come under Cicero's moral exceptions may be best learned from his own evidence, as recorded in the State Trials. Mr. Cockayne and Jackson had been very intimate friends: in the course of their intimacy, money transactions had taken place, rendering, by Mr Cockayne's account, Jackson his debtor three hundred pounds. When Cockayne communicated his discoveries to the minister it was intimated that, as the matter must become a subject of legal investigation, it would be necessary for him to substantiate the allegations: Mr. Cockayne was averse to give evidence against his friend, *because*, if the friend should be capitally convicted, he would lose the sum that was owing; but government agreeing to liquidate this account, his scruples were removed; he went to Dublin to become a witness for the crown. See Cockayne's evidence on Jackson's trial, Irish State Trials.

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LXI.

1798.

The whig
party pro-
pose concil-
iatory
measures,

and seized great quantities. In operations requiring military force and summary execution, where there is a collision of attack and resistance, bloodshed is unavoidable ; but the malcontents set the example of atrocious violence, by plundering houses and murdering the innocent inhabitants. The soldiers were not slow in retaliation, nor always discriminating in punishment. Both parties of Irishmen were inflamed by reciprocal suffering, and the acts of both bore the stamp of infuriated passion, and unrestrained licentiousness. The conspirators, first in recent transgression, were the more atrocious in barbarous acts ; but their advocates imputed their conduct to the indignant resentment of men that had suffered long under systematic oppression, and in endeavouring by the most violent exertions to break their chains on the heads of their oppressors, little cared though these oppressors should be crushed in the struggle ; and Ireland was now a scene of disorder, robbery, and massacre. In this situation of things, the whig party, consisting chiefly of men of similar sentiments both in general and temporary politics with those of messrs. Fox, Sheridan, Erskine, and their coadjutors in England, in May, proposed the conciliatory measure of parliamentary reform. In contentions between government and numerous bodies of the governed, conciliation is generally the soundest policy, if adopted before the passions be violently inflamed, and the projects matured. Conciliatory measures when adopted, appeased America, and if the system had been uniform, there is a moral certainty, that the war and all its dreadful consequences might have been prevented : spontaneous sacrifice on the part of the French monarchy, if offered at the first appearance of a spirit of liberty, might have preserved the greater part of what by too long tenacity it was compelled to relinquish : but, conciliation to be effectual, must be offered in the early stage of discontent, before resentment contracts inveteracy, and concerted resistance requires force. After rigid rejection of suppliant petitions, concession offered to men in arms, appears either the retraction of precipitancy, or submission of fear ; and, instead of restoring confidence and attachment, encourages revolt, by representing it likely to succeed. Lenient measures were then too late ; government

and legislature acted wisely in rejecting them at so advanced a period of the conspiracy: thwarted in this attempt, the whigs withdrew from parliament.

IRELAND was at this time in a deplorable state: the occupations in civil life were deserted, and the people were intent every where on preparations for war: those who were peacefully disposed could promise themselves no security; they were plundered by the malcontents, who collected in numerous armed bodies, and committed every species of outrage and devastation. Proclamations were issued, threatening severe punishments on the offenders; but they were as little regarded as the offers of pardon to those who forsook the rebellious associations. The conspirators projected a general insurrection, to take place in the summer of this year, and to be seconded by France. In July they received information that two armaments, one from Holland and the other from Brest, were ready to sail for Ireland whenever they could elude the British fleets; they therefore postponed the intended rise, and waited with impatience for the arrival of the promised auxiliaries; but the defeat of the Dutch fleet in October was a fatal blow to their hopes.^a France they knew had for maritime effort trusted chiefly to Spain and Holland, and their expectations from both had been blasted by Jervis and Duncan. But another fortunate circumstance for the British interests in Ireland was, that the object of the malcontents and of the French republic were totally different. The Irish conspirators sought the formation of their country into a republic, independent of Britain and also of France. The French proposed to subdue Ireland, and to form it into a government like the Batavian republic, dependent on themselves. The Irish, considering their own object, desired the directory to send ten thousand men, which would be a very efficient body of auxiliaries, without being dangerous to the principals. The French, to promote their purpose, proposed to send fifty thousand men, which they did not doubt would be able to model the whole island according to their views and pleasure. Finding the Irish, however,averse to their plan of invasion, they turned their attention to

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XLI.

1798:
which are
rejected as
inappli-
cable to the
case.

Proclama-
tions and
proffers of
pardon are
totally dis-
regarded.

The united
Irishmen
concert
measures
for a gene-
ral insur-
rection.

Disap-
pointed by
Duncan's
defeat of
the Dutch
fleet.
Want of
concert be-
tween the
conspira-
tors and
the French
republic.

^a See Reports of the Secret Committees of the Irish parliament, 1798.

CHAP.
LXI.

1798.

Arrestation
of the dele-
gates,hurries on
rebellion
before
their de-
signs were
ripe.

Rebellion.

objects which they deemed more advantageous and more practicable. They now therefore received the propositions of the conspirators with great coolness; and the Irish despairing of any effectual assistance from the French republic, prepared for an insurrection, without waiting for cooperation from the continent. In spring 1798, they employed themselves in dispositions for war; and meanwhile, in every part of the country, were guilty of the most savage atrocities. The benevolent spirit of lord Moira, still hoping that conciliation might be effectual, proposed pacificatory measures, but government assured his lordship that any proffers of the kind would be unavailing, and lord Moira's conciliatory motion was rejected. Such was the secrecy of the chief conspirators, that though the plot was discovered, yet the names of the plotters were not found out. At last one Reynolds, who had become an united Irishman, reflecting on their atrocious designs, was struck with remorse, and communicated their intentions to a friend, who prevailed on him fully to disclose the business and agents to government. On this discovery, fourteen of the chief delegates were seized in the house of Mr. Oliver Bond.^p Lord Edward Fitzgerald escaped, but being afterwards discovered, he resisted the officers sent to apprehend him, in the scuffle was mortally wounded, and died a few days after. The remaining conspirators, now grown desperate, proposed a general insurrection, to be executed in the night of the 24th of May: but captain Armstrong, a militia officer, who had insinuated himself into their confidence, and pretended to be an accomplice, apprized government of their designs. The two Sheares of Dublin, Neilson of Belfast, and several other chiefs, were arrested on the 23d of May, and the metropolis was put into a state of perfect security against any attempt. The conspirators thus deprived of their leaders, though scantily provided with arms and necessaries, determined notwithstanding to execute their project of general insurrection. They began rebellion, on the 24th of May, by attacking Naas, a town fifteen miles from Dublin; but they were repulsed by a body of Irish militia, under lord Gos-

^p See Annual Register, 1798.

ford. A band of insurgents at the same time took possession of the heights near Kilcullen, but they were dislodged by general Dundas, and between one and two hundred were killed and taken. To detail the various engagements which took place in this warfare, would exceed the space which the plan of the history allows; I shall therefore confine myself to the chief agents, operations, and results. The insurgents fighting with undisciplined courage, were frequently victorious over smaller numbers; but inflamed by their furious priests, where they prevailed, they exercised a savage barbarity unknown in the annals of civilized society.^a The regular soldiers of the loyalists were not numerous, but the Irish militia fought with distinguished fidelity, valour, and effect, against the rebels. The English militia being at their instance permitted by an act of parliament to assist their loyal fellow subjects, several regiments crossed the channel, and were most powerfully instrumental in supporting the cause of government. To pass over desultory I mention the first great scheme of rebel operation was in the counties of Carlow and Wexford: a large body of rebels having been repulsed at the former place, being reinforced, proceeded to Wexford, amounting to fifteen thousand: part of the garrison marched out to give them battle, but they were surrounded and entirely defeated.^b A few days after the insurgents took the town of Wexford, and a great number of prisoners. In their farther progress being repulsed, and infuriated by revenge and priestly instigation they murdered their prisoners in cold blood. General Lake, on the 21st of June, gained a complete victory, the consequence of which was, that this insubstantial insurrection was entirely crushed.^c In the south of Ireland a rebellion also broke out, but the insurgents were completely overcome at Ballynahinch, and the whole rebellion was quelled before the end of June. After this time, various scattered parties, taking refuge in the bogs and mountains, infested the adjacent country, but were rather marauding banditti that disturbed the police

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The insurgents near Dublin are defeated.

Alarming insurrection in Wexford;

success of;

at length they are defeated. Rebellion is suppressed in the south. Insurrection in the north advances, but is subdued.

^a See Narrative of the Sufferings of Jackson, published in 1798.
^b Otridge's Register, 1798, p. 163. ^c See letters of general Lake, dated 24, and inserted in the London Gazette extraordinary of June 26.

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insurgents that rebelled against the government. The most formidable of these parties was commanded by a daring and noted adventurer, Holt, who at length surrendered himself to government. The discovery and arrest of the principal conspirators prevented this rebellion from being carried on with any efficient concert, in the first place it consisted of detached multitudes driven by their passions to desperate valour and savage cruelty; in the second, it was chiefly inhabited by protestant dissenters, it was by no means so general in extent, nor so merciless in operation. The rebellion of Ireland, appearing both to the king and to his majesty to require a lord lieutenant who could act in a military as well as civil capacity, lord Cornwallis was therefore requested to be recalled, and the king appointed the marquis Cornwallis his successor. The rebellion being finished, the new viceroy adopted a plan of mingled firmness and conciliation, which executed with discriminating judgment, tended to quiet Ireland, and prepare matters for a permanent plan to prevent the recurrence of such pernicious evils, and to promote the industry and prosperity of the country. The French with a small body attempted to revive rebellion in Ireland, and surprising our troops by their unexpected appearance, gained a temporary advantage; but were soon overpowered and captured by lord Cornwallis. A French squadron of one ship of the line (the *Hoche*) and eight frigates, with troops and ammunition on board, destined for Ireland, was, on the 1st of October, taken or dispersed by a British squadron under sir John Borlase Warren:^t the whole French equipment, with the exception of two frigates, fell ultimately into the hands of the English. Among the prisoners taken in the *Hoche* was Wolfe Tone, who being tried and condemned, hastened out of life by a voluntary death.

attempts to revive rebellion, are vanquished. Squadron defeated by Sir John Borlase Warren. Irish rebellion extinguished.

^t See letter from commodore Warren, in the *London Gazette* extraordinary, Oct. 21st, 1798.

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French threats of an invasion—rouse the spirit, and stimulate the efforts of Britain—animated and energetic patriotism—the nation starts up in arms to defend their king, constitution, and country—against a people so disciplined and so powerful, Bonaparte sees all attempts must be vain.—France turns her ambition to less hopeless projects—grand scheme of distant conquest—expedition under Bonaparte—learned and philosophic attendants of the expedition—captures Malta, a neutral island—lands in Egypt—sir Horatio Nelson despatched in pursuit of the French fleet—traverses the Mediterranean—describes them in Aboukir bay—dispositions for attack—valorous ardour of the British heroes—rapidity of movement—strong position of the enemy, and collateral advantages—bold and surprising movement of the British—impetuous courage and extraordinary efforts of the French—in vain combat the naval heroism of England—decisive and splendid victory of Nelson—estimate of this achievement—political effects—extensive and momentous consequences of the battle of Aboukir—it stimulates all Europe to resist the ambition of France.—Affairs of Italy.—Russia—character of Paul—internal regulations, external policy.—State of the American republic, affected by revolutions and contests in Europe.

THE inattention of the French to the affairs of Ireland, by no means arose from supineness : they were occupied with very grand and soaring projects. Their power was at this time enormous : Holland, Spain, and Italy, were vassalages of the French empire ; Austria was prostrate on her feet ; the mountains and fastnesses of Switzerland had escaped the invading ambition of this potent neighbour ; unprovoked by aggression, the republicans had pillaged, and revolutionized those brave cantons. The only place they saw was inaccessible to their schemes of sub-

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French threats of an invasion rouse the spirit and stimulate the efforts of Britain. Animated and energetic patriotism. The nation starts up in arms to defend their king, constitution and country. Against a people so disposed and so powerful, Bonaparte sees all attempts must be vain. France turns her ambition to less hopeless projects. Grand scheme of distant conquest.

Expedition under Bonaparte, sails from Toulon.

jugation : England, always terrible, was in the year 1798, become a nation of soldiers. From Caithness to Kent and Cornwall, the united nations were in arms : internal conspiracies were quashed, and all hearts and hands were joined in defiance of the French. The leaders of opposition," who had so often predicted the evils that would arise from persistence in the war, were among the readiest to meet the enemy, if he invaded Britain. Bonaparte was aware that Britain contained more formidable opponents than he had ever encountered ; the defiles and precipices of the Alps and Apennines, guarded by myriads of Austrians fighting for their *masters*, could be surmounted ; but the plains of Sussex and of Kent, containing hands and hearts of freeborn Englishmen, fighting for *THEMSELVES*, would, he well knew, be impassable. Convinced of the hopelessness of any direct attempt upon England, the French government, and the general, formed a very grand scheme of conquest, which would ultimately extend to the richest possessions of Great Britain. The project was to subdue Malta, invade and reduce Egypt, and establish the French power in that country, with the double purposes of possessing the riches of the Nile, and extending their sway to the wealth of the Ganges : the empires of Turkey and Hindostan they proposed to render either parts or dependencies of the French republic. The projects for an invasion of England were apparently continued for a considerable time after the design was laid aside, that their real purposes might be the better concealed and accomplished. While certain bodies of troops, and stores, were drawn towards the coasts of Normandy and Brittany, others were collected at Toulon ; this port was the rendezvous of the expedition which sailed under the orders of Bonaparte, on the 20th of May, 1798. It consisted of thirteen ships of the line, of which one carried a hundred and twenty guns, three eighty, and nine seventy-

u No man showed himself more loyally and patriotically resolute to combat in the field an invasion, than that illustrious nobleman, who in the vigour of a life devoted so warmly, wisely, and effectually, to the benefit of his country, has within these few days* been prematurely cut off in the middle of a benevolent and beneficial career, which entitled him to a much more estimable reputation, than any statesman or general could acquire by planning or carrying on aggressive war. See his proposed address to the king, March 1798, and the speech by which it was supported.

* Written in March 1802, soon after the death of the duke of Bedford.

four, seven frigates of forty guns, besides smaller vessels, making altogether forty-four sail. The transports amounted to nearly two hundred, carrying about twenty thousand men, regular troops, with a proportionable number of horses, and artillery, and immense quantities of provisions and military stores. Bonaparte in all his expeditions and designs included the advancement of knowledge, the subjection of matter to mind, and the subserviency of mind to his own views : with his *physical artillery* so tremendous to opponents, he carried an INTELLECTUAL AND MORAL ARTILLERY, tending still more effectually to break down all opposition. In his fleet there were scientific men and artists of every kind : astronomers, mathematicians, chemists, mineralogists, botanists, physicians, and many other classes of ingenious and learned men ; certainly a much more rational assortment of attendants, than buffoons, parasites, priests, and prostitutes, the usual retinue of French monarchs when heading their army.^y A variety of conjectures were formed with regard to the destination of this formidable armament : the largest that had ever been equipped in France, for any distant expedition. Malta and Egypt were generally pointed out as its principal objects ; which they proved accordingly. The riches of the former were deemed a sufficient temptation for France to seize them, in its present need of resources, exclusive of the abundant supply of skilful mariners to be drawn from that island, were the French to retain it : the latter appeared an acquisition of the highest importance to the commercial interest of France, which would enable it to intercept and ruin the trade of England in India, one of the principal resources of our opulence and naval grandeur. On the 9th of June, the fleet arriving at Malta, Bonaparte attacked that country, upon no better principle than Cyrus, Alexander, or Cæsar attacked Babylon, Persia, and Gaul ; and annexed it to the possessions of France.^z Departing on the 20th of June, on the 1st of July he reached the bay of Alexandria.

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Learned
and philo-
sophical
attendants
of the ex-
pedition.

THE project of seizing and colonizing Egypt had been suggested by the count Vergennes, to the French

^y See Campaigns of Louis XV. in Flanders. and voyage, in Denon's Travels, chap. i. and ii.

^z See details of the capture

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1794.
Lands in
Egypt.

government, during the monarchy. At present its seizure was extremely desirable to the French, because, besides its commercial benefits both actual and prospective, it opened a probable opportunity of revolutionizing Greece, long and ardently desirous of breaking the fetters of Turkish despotism. The French commander sent to the Greek states the strongest assurances of powerful aid, if they would vindicate their liberties. His ability, however, to perform his promises, depended upon an element, the command of which Providence had bestowed on another; a truth of which France had many warnings, but now was to receive a most fatally signal lesson.

LORD ST. VINCENT commanded this year, as before, the fleet destined to watch the coasts of the ocean, and was cruising off Cadiz when intelligence arrived of the departure and operations of the Gallic armament. While he himself continued to block the Spanish fleet, he detached a squadron in quest of the French expedition, and conferred the command on rear-admiral sir Horatio Nelson. This armament consisted of thirteen ships of the line and one of fifty guns.^a The captains were all men of unquestionable zeal and professional talents, assisted by officers who highly merited their respective stations; and these were supported by crews who had been long practised in the habits of all that appertains to naval war; and the greater number of the ships had been engaged in distinguished actions. The British admiral first sailed towards Naples, and on the coast of Sicily learned that the enemy's fleet had visited Malta. Thither he hastened: but on his arrival was informed, they had departed from thence a few days before, and steered to the eastward. Conceiving that the French expedition was destined for Egypt, he proceeded directly thither; but arriving off Alexandria, he heard that they had not appeared on that coast. Eager to meet the enemy, and

Admiral
Nelson
sails in
pursuit of
the French
fleet.

^a The ships were, the Vanguard, 74, rear-admiral sir Horatio Nelson, captain Berry; Orion, 74, sir J. Saumarez; Culloden, 74, Tronbridge; Alexander, 74, Ball; Zealous, 74, S. Hood; Goliath, 74, captain Foley; Bellerophon, 74, captain Darby; Minotaur, 74, captain Louis; Defence, 74, captain Peyton; Audacious, 74, captain Gould; Majestic, 74, captain Westcott; Swiftsure, 74, captain Hallowell; Thetis, 74, captain Miller; Leander, 50, Thompson.

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He traverses the
Mediterranean.

He descries them
in Aboukir bay.

Dispositions for
attack.

confident that they were in the Mediterranean, he proceeded in a course which he had not hitherto essayed: the British squadron was led northward to Rhodes. There hearing no tidings of the enemy, Nelson again returned to the westward; sailing along the coast of Morea, he learned from a Turkish governor that the French fleet had proceeded to Egypt, though they had not reached that country so soon as their pursuers. Sailing as quickly as possible, the British squadron again arrived on the coast of Egypt. The *Alexander* and *Leander*, being before the rest, descried the *Pharos* of Alexandria, and, immediately after, the fleet perceived the armament of the enemy lying at anchor in a line eastward from the point of *Aboukir*.^b The two ships which had first perceived Alexandria, by this time had advanced nearer the coast on the right hand, so that the others, which were farther out to sea, were before them in rounding the cape. The *Cullogen* being obliged to tow a vessel laden with wine, was somewhat behind the rest.

THE genius of Nelson united that comprehensive foresight which completely provides for every probable occurrence, with the ready invention and prompt decision which meet unforeseen circumstances. Conceiving it likely that the enemy would be moored near the coast for easy and expeditious communication with their land forces, and knowing that the dexterity and boldness of English seamen could venture nearer land than the French would judge prudent, on this foundation he concerted his plan; and resolved that if it could be found at all practicable, part of his fleet running between them and the shore should attack them on the one side, while the rest should bear down upon the other, and thus inclose the foe between two fires. Having formed this general design, and reposing the highest confidence in the ability and courage of his officers and sailors, he directed that in its execution the captains should exercise their judgment in the time and place, and that every ship should begin battle where she could act most powerfully. On this occasion, there were such displays of emulation by every ship

^b Dennon says, that one of the French ships descried our fleet.

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Emulous
ardour of
the British
heroes.
Rapiditv of
movement.

Strong po-
sitions of
the enemy,
and colla-
teral ad-
vantages.

Bold and
surprising
movement
of the Bri-
tish.

to gain an advanced post in the attack, as must have tended to inspire each other with an invincible confidence. So alert were the whole, that no ship could get ahead of another that was in the smallest degree advanced forward.^c The admiral gave orders for attacking the enemy's van and center, and soon after hoisted a signal for close engagement. As the British fleet was closing upon the enemy, a cannonade was begun by the French ships, supported by batteries from the castle of Bequires on Aboukir promontory. The enemy's fleet lay in a line with their heads towards the west. Having on their left, or larboard, the coast abounding with shoals, they had no apprehension that the British ships would make any attempt on that side, where, besides shallow water, they would be so much annoyed by the batteries on shore: their defence was directed to the starboard, where only they expected an attack: but one adventurous movement of the British totally disconcerted the Gallic plan of combat. Captain Foley, in the *Goliah*, leading the British van, darted in ahead of the enemy's vanmost ship, *Le Guerrier*, doubled her larboard side, and having poured a destructive fire into the Frenchman, moved on to the second, whom he charged with tremendous fury. Next followed the *Zealous*, Captain Hood, who attacked the enemy's vaumost ship, also on her side next the shore. Thirdly proceeded the *Orion*, sir James Saumarez, and took her station on the inside of the enemy's third ship. The *Theseus*, captain Miller, following the same example, encountered the enemy's fourth. Fifth came the *Audacious*, captain Gould, who moved round to the enemy's fifth. Sixth advanced the *Vanguard*, carrying the heroic *Nelson*, with his gallant *Berry*, and took his station opposite to the enemy's starboard, where, expecting the British efforts, they were prepared. The enemy's first and second, which had longest encountered our ships, being considerably damaged before *Nelson* came up, the admiral assailed that which was still fresh; the seventh, eighth, and ninth ships stationed themselves opposite to the fourth, fifth, and sixth ships of the enemy. Thus,

^c Besides gazettes and other documents, I have received many particulars from gentlemen who were present.

by the masterly seamanship and conduct, with the dauntless valour of the British commanders, nine of our ships were so disposed as to bear their force upon six of the enemy. The seventh of the French was L'Orient, a ship of immense size, being a hundred and twenty guns: this stupendous adversary was undertaken by the Bellerophon, captain Darby; while the Majestic, captain Westcott, attacked an antagonist farther astern. The British ships, thus arranged, played upon the enemy with the most tremendous effects. The heroic admiral himself was wounded in the head; but his soul animating his valiant countrymen, the ardour of their efforts was undiminished. Meanwhile the Leander and Alexander, captains Thompson and Ball, though by having been foremost on the side of Alexandria, they were behind the others in passing Aboukir, yet reached the enemy in time to partake of the most dreadful dangers of the conflict. The enemy fought with a valour and impetuous heroism which no efforts of courage and skill could have withstood but the extraordinary courage and skill which they had to encounter; they resolutely persevered in their exertions after the close of the evening till the approach of midnight. The conflict was now carried on in the darkness of the night in the southern latitudes, and the only light to guide their operations were the flashes of cannon. About twelve o'clock, the enemy's enormous ship, the L'Orient, was blown up with a terrible explosion, and a blaze that displayed at one glance the promontory of Aboukir, the capacious bay, and the magnificence of the Nile. The French now found all their endeavours hopeless; they however continued a languid fire, with increasing intermissions, and at length entirely desisted from opposition so unavailing. Morning opened a view, exhibiting at once the intrepid valour and obstinate resolution of the vanquished, the stupendous efforts and decisive victory of the conquerors. Of the French fleet two ships only and two frigates escaped fire or destruction; so complete was the victory of British heroism and ability. The French transports in the harbour, and garrison in Alexandria, waited, in suspense, for their personal doom, as well as the fate of the French navy. Even as far as Rosetta, distant about

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Impetuous
courage
and extra-
ordinary
efforts
of the
French,

in vain
combat the
naval he-
roism of
England.

Decisive
and splen-
did victory
of Nelson.

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Estimate
of this
achievement.

Political
effects.

Extensive
and momentous
consequences of the
battle of
Aboukir:

thirty miles from Aboukir, the battle, by the aid of glasses, was seen by French officers, from its minarets and towers.^d An interesting part of the prospect afforded by the dawning morn was, the adjacent shores all lined with natives, regarding with astonishment both in the conquered and conquerors, the terrible heroes of the north. As a sublime effort of naval genius, the history of ENGLAND HERSELF affords no instance more brilliant than the battle of the Nile. The head that projected the plan of attack, the hearts and hands that carried it into execution, deserve not merely the cold narrative of the historian, but the ardent description of the epic poet. Were Homer to rise from the dead, he would find a subject worthy of his muse in the British sailors and the British officers, headed by the British Nelson.

WHILE the renown of this action reached every quarter of the globe, its political effects were instantaneous and surprising over all Europe. The enemies of France every where recovered from the despondency by which they were oppressed previously to this glorious event; and an evident reanimation took place in all their councils, which were now occupied with the means of improving so signal a success. Reaching England, the news of this extraordinary victory filled the nation with joy and generous pride.

GOVERNMENT, anticipating its political effects, were animated with the hopes of reviving and extending the combination against France. There were various circumstances favourable to this expectation: the Austrians regarded the treaty of Campo Formio as merely an armed truce, during which they were to make dispositions for renewing the combat.^e The emperor himself, a harmless prince, and intent upon frivolous amusement, little comprehended the political interests of his dominions; but extremely plastic, was guided by his counsellors, and acted wisely or unwisely according to the directions he received. His ministers having now time to recover from the consternation under which they had concluded a peace that left to France such valuable possessions, and finding a great portion of the French force, with its formidable

^d See Denon's Travels, vol. i.

^e Annual Register, 1798, ch. ix. ; and 1799, ch. viii

leader, by the late victory separated from the country, began to perceive the practicability of recovering some of their lost advantages. A congress had been opened at Rastadt between the various princes of the Germanic empire and the French republic, for the adjustment of their respective pretensions; but the settlements went on very slowly, and many differences were either found or made. Catharine, empress of Russia, at first had only been in name a member of the confederacy; but after the secession of Prussia, had judged it expedient to become serious, and was preparing a great force, when suddenly arrested by the hand of death. Her successor and son, Paul, though weak, was extremely imperious, and having the most despotic notions of kingly right, considered the Bourbon family as unjustly and iniquitously ejected from a rightful possession, which they derived from heaven; and not individuals, excluded from the executive office held by their ancestors, when the majority of the people conceived such an exclusion conducive to the public welfare: he therefore determined to attempt their restoration, which, after Nelson's victory, he thought practicable. Throughout his empire, but especially in the metropolis, he was chiefly anxious to preserve the gradation of ranks, and to resist novelty. The minuteness of his arrangements for this purpose extended to orders for wearing cocked hats instead of round, coats without capes, waistcoats with flaps, stocks instead of stiffened handkerchiefs, breeches and shoes with buckles instead of strings; prohibited half boots; and manifested a petty mind pursuing a great object, which was in its careless ease and appendages to reprobate republicanism, and to cherish monarchy in its stiff and formal ceremonials. His proclamations about shoe buckles and neck handkerchiefs as clearly demonstrated the intentions of such a man, as an edict for preventing an influx of revolutionists. Paul very directly and explicitly avowed his abhorrence of the French republic, and indicated such dispositions to overthrow the present revolutionary system, and reestablish monarchy. The Turks also were incensed at the French invasion of Egypt, and manifested a determination to use their utmost efforts to drive them from that country, and to combine

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stimulates
all Europe
to resist the
power of
France.

Russia.

Character
of Paul.

Internal
regulations
and external
policy.

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State of
the Ame-
rican re-
public as
affected by
revolutions
and con-
tests in
Europe.

with their enemies. The British ministers were not slow in discovering these views, and endeavoured to form a confederacy more powerful than the preceding alliance: nor were their views confined to Europe, but extended to the American republic.

FRANCE, considering herself as the nurse of American liberty, from the confederacy of 1778, had cultivated a close connexion with the new commonwealth. From the commencement of the French revolution, the Gallic republicans had eagerly desired to spread their own peculiar doctrines beyond the Atlantic: they had procured many votaries, but were not able to succeed with the more respectable and powerful classes in the United States; maintaining solid and beneficial liberty, property, and religion, these presented three potent bulwarks against the French revolution. The necessary precautions of Britain for preventing importation of stores into France, had given umbrage to the Americans; but on fully considering the necessity of the case, and the fairness and equality with which the British government had acted, they had been perfectly reconciled; and, in 1794, had concluded a treaty of amity and commerce. In 1796, the haughtiness of the directory on the one hand, and the prudence of America on the other, coincided with the policy of Britain in drawing the ties of confederation closer between this country and the United States. The French republicans, considering the United States as indebted to France for their independence, bore with impatience and indignation that so great a benefit should be overlooked, and that, in this struggle for liberty, with so many powers combined against them from every quarter in Europe, they should be forsaken by that people, in whose cause they had acted with so much zeal and success. But they were particularly displeased with the treaty of 1794, which they deemed inconsistent with the engagements between France and America. The French government breathed nothing but revenge; and its agents were extremely active in exertions to revolutionize America. Two parties now existed in the states, which, from their objects, may be deemed the constitutional, or supporters of the established government; and the revolutionary, or abettors of innova-

tions on the model of the French changes. Of the former were the greater number of men of property, character, and importance in the state, of the latter were demagogues and their votaries, and the same kind of men that were agitators of discontent in Great Britain, and that are agitators of discontent in all countries where circumstances afford an opportunity. The object of the constitutional party was peace and neutrality, not to be interrupted by the contests of Europe. These would, in the course of a few years, raise the United States to a condition of prosperity and power, that must render them formidable to all the world, and secure to them tranquillity at home, and respect from abroad. The French having intercepted a letter from the United States to the ambassador at London, expressing these sentiments, considered this avowal of neutrality as inimical to the republic of France, and hoped to effect such a change in America as would render them dependent on France; and, by their agents, ardently endeavoured to spread principles of jacobinical revolution. Meanwhile, they made very imperious remonstrances to the government of the United States; and at length passed a decree directing her privateers to capture the vessels of neutral nations. In consequence of this decree, numerous captures of American vessels were made by the cruisers of the French republic, and of some of those of Spain, during the year 1797. A farther decree, on the subject of maritime affairs, was issued in January 1798, "That all ships, having for their cargoes, in whole or in part, any English merchandise, should be held lawful prizes, whoever might be the proprietor of that merchandise; which should be held contraband from the single circumstance of its coming from England, or any of its foreign settlements." It was also enacted, that the harbours of France should be shut against all ships, except in cases of distress, that had so much as touched at any English port; and, that neutral sailors, found on board English vessels, should be put to death. The execution of this last decree was prevented by a declaration on the part of Britain, threatening retaliation. But these hostile proceedings extremely incensed the Americans, and disposed them to enmity with the country

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that they considered as the universal disturber of other states. Convinced, however, of the policy of persevering in neutrality, the American government still attempted conciliatory measures; and instructed their envoy to endeavour to reestablish harmony between the French and the American republics: but the directory haughtily refused an audience. Imputing to intimidation the American desire of preserving peace, the directory resolved to make the most of their supposed fears; and intimated, that if a treaty was to be renewed between France and America, the states must contribute, in return for this friendship, a very large sum of money; and farther intimated, that it would be impossible for America to resist the power of France. The American government was well aware, that boasts of a power to be exerted by France on the ocean, where Britain was her opponent, were not to be dreaded as the means of conquest; still however, should a rupture take place, their trade they knew would be very materially injured: they therefore made such a reply as showed that they still desired peace, though they would not be bullied to concession; and they declared themselves solicitous to avoid a contest with the French republic. One object only was dearer to them than the friendship of France, their national independence: America, they observed, had taken a neutral station: to lend a sum of money to a belligerent power, abounding in every thing requisite for war, but money, would be to relinquish their neutrality, and take part in the contest. To lend that money, under the lash and coercion of France, would be to relinquish the government of themselves, and to submit to a foreign government imposed by force. They would make one manly struggle before they surrendered their national independence. America was not like the petty nations of Europe that had become subject to the Gallic yoke; they were competent to their own defence against all hostile attacks; they could maintain their own rights. The French still continued to demand a loan,^f to

^f See the correspondence and conferences between the French minister and the American envoys, with the proceedings of the American government thereon, as detailed in State Papers, 1798. The publication of this correspondence (as the Annual Register observes) between Talleyrand and the American ministers of peace, made a lively and deep impression on all the nations of Europe. Not all their actual depredations in Germany, the Netherlands, Hol-

capture American ships, and to employ the most imperious and insulting language, which a free, brave, and independent people, regarded with equal indignation and contempt, and prepared to repel force by force. Liberty was granted by congress to individuals to fit out privateers to make reprisals: measures were adopted for forming and establishing a powerful navy, to protect and defend the American flag. The army was strengthened, and the command was bestowed on general Washington: the destruction of the French fleet at Aboukir spread joy over the constitutional Americans, and stimulated their preparations against a power which they had good reason to deem the disturber of all established society; and thus the exertions of America were expected by the European enemies of republican France, to cooperate with their efforts.

AMIDST the signal successes of Britain in preventing invasion, suppressing rebellion, and crushing the naval force of the enemy, she experienced one disappointment: an expedition was undertaken against Ostend, with a view of seizing the ships and stores there deposited by the enemy. The armament consisted of a naval force, commanded by captain Home Popham, and a body of troops commanded by general Coote. Their first effort was successful, but great numbers of republican forces having been rapidly assembled at Ostend, overpowered the British troops, and compelled them to surrender; but captain Popham brought off his department of the expedition. This miscarriage was but little regarded in a year of such extraordinary efforts, brilliant and momentous achievements, as the renowned 1798 was to Great Britain.

land, Switzerland, and Italy; no not their plunder of the Papal territories, afforded to the minds of men so convincing a proof, that the French republic was governed not more by a thirst of universal dominion, than by a rage for plunder, as even an attempt to subject the Americans to tribute.

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Britain—effects of the late glorious campaign—discontent is silenced—ministers recover a high degree of popularity.—Meeting of parliament—grand objects, to provide for internal defence, strengthen the confederacy, and form a union with Ireland—supplies—income tax—objections and argument for and against—subsidy to the emperor of Russia—arguments for and against—splendid speech of Mr. Pitt on the advantages which might be derived from the emperor Paul—powerful impression of on the house—the subsidy is granted—motion for peace—opposition reprobate a new confederacy—the motion is negatived—the professed object of war, security—great object of the British government to excite and invigorate a coalition against France.—Measures for the better administration of Ireland—Mr. Pitt's plan of union with Ireland submitted to parliament—arguments for and against—proposed to the Irish parliament—discussed—vehemently opposed in Ireland—literary efforts on both sides—renewed suspension of the habeas corpus act—inquiry into the state prisons—further provisions for internal defence and security—parliament prorogued.

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1798.
Britain.
Effects of
the late
glorious
campaign.

AS the disposition of the nation had been much more favourable to the ministers, in the close of 1797 than at the end of 1796, so at the termination of 1798, they were more generally popular than at any period since the first year of the war. The assessed taxes, having undergone so many modifications, were not much felt but by the higher classes, who with few exceptions were favourable to government. Among the middling ranks, and also including some of the lower orders, the loyal associations superinduced a military character on the civil ideas and sentiments of their members, and had a powerful tendency to render them well affected to government and administration, with whom they naturally deemed them-

selves cooperators in defending their country from foreign invasion, and internal disturbance. Discontent was silenced; the subjugation of rebellion in Ireland strengthened the power of the British government: the splendid battle of the Nile, so gratifying to the generous pride of British patriotism, encircling the whole nation with the rays of glory, reflected part of its lustre on those ministers who had furnished the force and selected the commanders. The contemplation of magnificent victory acquired by national prowess, engrossing the thoughts of the multitude, suspended all retrospective inquiry into the wisdom of the contest, the energy and skill of preceding plans, the consequent events, and the general result of benefit to Great Britain. As our arms had been so eminently successful, the counsels of the ministers recovered a very considerable share of popularity and applause. Such was the state of things and the disposition of the people, when parliament met November 20th, 1798. His majesty's speech having bestowed the just tribute of applause on the glorious achievements of the campaign, mentioned his hopes that our efforts and successes would inspirit other powers to such exertions as might lead to the general deliverance of Europe. He entertained great expectations from the example of Russia and the Ottoman Porte, which, joined to the disposition manifested almost universally in the different countries struggling under the yoke of France, must be a powerful encouragement to other states, to adopt that vigorous line of conduct, which experience had proved to be alone consistent with security and honour. The supreme objects of parliamentary provisions of finance and force for internal defence, and for invigorating the confederacy which was now forming; and propositions of permanent union between Great Britain and Ireland. The army demanded for the year 1799, was somewhat greater and more expensive than for the former. For the navy, a hundred and twenty thousand were required, instead of a hundred and ten thousand. The assessed taxes, from the number of modifications, had failed in productiveness: in lieu of it, the minister therefore proposed a direct tax upon income, requiring one-tenth on all incomes exceeding two hundred pounds. To this propo-

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recover a
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Meeting of
parlia-
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Grand ob-
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Ireland.
Supplies.
Income
tax:
objections
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sition various objections were made: it was said to be a requisition similar in principle to the reprobated exactions of the French rulers; and an application of the revolutionary maxim, that all property belongs to the state. It compelled a disclosure of property, in many respects extremely inconvenient to mercantile men. To these general objections to the principle, were added more special arguments against the provisions; that two hundred pounds was much too low a rate to admit a subtraction of one-tenth; that the gradation ought to continue to at least five hundred, to be balanced by increased contributions from large incomes. It was farther said, that the source of income ought to be considered; that persons deriving a revenue from professional industry and skill, or trade, ought not to pay the same proportion as landed and moneyed capitalists; because part of their income might be equitably allowed to be reserved for accumulating a capital. It was said that Mr. Pitt, in resisting modifications to those effects, rather employed that trimming dexterity which courted the favour of landed and moneyed capitalists, than the liberal and wise policy which sought the least burdensome mode of necessary impost. Having undergone these objections, Mr. Pitt's new scheme of finance was by a very great majority passed into a law. From the income tax he expected about ten millions, and the rest of the supplies were to be raised by a loan amounting to about fifteen millions. The taxes in addition to income were new imposts upon sugar and coffee, on bills of exchange and stamps. The British government, deeming the cooperation of the Russian emperor against the French republic as of the first importance, had so successfully made application to his present dispositions, that an alliance was concluded between the two powers. A provisional treaty was concluded between Great Britain and Russia, December 18th, 1798,^s the general object of which was to concert such measures as might contribute, in the most efficacious manner, to oppose the successes of the French arms, and the extension of the principles of anarchy, and to bring about a

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Subsidy to
the em-
peror of
Russia.

Arguments
for and
against.

Splendid
speech of
Mr. Pitt,
in praise of
the emperor
Paul.

Powerful
impressions
of on the
house.

The sub-
sidy is
granted.

peace, together with the reestablishment of the
of Europe. His Britannic majesty engaged to
the pecuniary succours : 225,000*l.* sterling for the
most urgent expenses ; of which, 75,000*l.* was to
as soon as the troops should have passed the Russian
; and that the other two moieties of a like sum
it was also stipulated, that his Britannic majesty
pay for a campaign of eight months, a subsidy of
per month, two-thirds of the sum to be immedi-
d, the other third at the conclusion of a peace.^h
error, on his part, was to bring to the field forty-
and men, in cavalry and infantry, with the neces-
sary. The contracting parties engaged not to make
peace or armistice, without including each other in
ty. A message from his majesty stated this con-
to parliament, and the requisite subsidy was pro-
ministers. The proposition did not pass without
the opponents of ministers asked what benefit
accrue to England from the services of Russia, to
present of two hundred and twenty-five thousand
and an annuity of thirteen hundred and fifty thou-
sight not Paul apply the money to his own
like another prince who had so completely duped
ters. Mr. Pitt, in a very eloquent speech, en-
the merits of the prince who now swayed the
sceptre : he expatiated on Paul's magnanimity,
religion, justice, property, and social order. From
semblage of virtues, which the brilliant genius of the
painted with his usual force of delineation and
of colour, he inferred fidelity and consistency in
error. His striking eulogy made a most powerful
impression upon the house, and on the faith of Paul's pious,
able, and conscientious character, the house, with-
other security, voted the sums which were
Three millions more were granted to his
for making good such other engagements as he

| | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|-------------------|
| Subsidy--first expense | - | - | - | - | - | 225,000 <i>l.</i> |
| 75,000 <i>l.</i> for eight months | - | - | - | - | - | 600,000 |
| 37,500 <i>l.</i> for said eight months payable after the peace | - | - | - | - | - | 300,000 |

1,125,000*l.*

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Motion for
peace.
Opposition
reprobates
new con-
federacy.Themotion
is nega-
tived.

might contract. The opponents of administration, apprehending that such projects of new alliance might continue hostilities, proposed an address to his majesty, deprecating any negotiation that might be inimical to the peace. We were likely to be again engaged in a crusading confederacy against France, which, we might be assured, would prove inefficient. If ministers, as they professed, did not fight for the restoration of the Bourbon family, what did they mean to effect? They professed to fight for *SECURITY*; how were the Russian or Austrian efforts to produce the security of England? The safety of this country depended on her own power, and especially her maritime exertions. The victory at Aboukir afforded, if properly improved, a most favourable opportunity for concluding a peace: now was the time to offer terms of accommodation to France, when she was so deeply impressed with the impossibility of encountering the navy of England. These arguments having no weight with the majorities in parliament, the proposed address was negatived. That ministers did not propose the restoration of the house of Bourbon, we are assured by their reiterated professions and declarations. Since the reestablishment of monarchy was not their purpose, the historian, judging from their conduct, must find it difficult to discover what other object they could, by reviving a confederacy, propose to pursue. Here, however, the declarations of British ministers are uniformly consistent—we were fighting for *SECURITY*. If we subsidized Prussia, the benefit which was to compensate the price paid, was to be *security*. If we subsidized Austria and Russia, we were to be gainers by the additional *security* which their purchased efforts were to produce. *Security* is a kind of metaphysical generality, the import and application of which might admit very different and contrary systems of efforts. If we proposed to go on in war until we attained what metaphysical politicians might call *security*, wisdom would of course examine the probable trouble and cost of the means, with the probable practicability and value of the ends; wisdom would ascertain, before she engaged deeply in supporting Russia and Austria by the resources of England, how far the advances of these powers, in a remote part of Europe, were to make England more

secure than we could be, with less trouble and cost, through our own army and navy. Government and legislature, appeared however to think that immense advantages might be derived from a new confederacy, and the great object of Britain in her foreign politics at present was to inspire and invigorate a coalition of continental powers, to act offensively against France in 1799.

WHILE these schemes of external operation were forming, the ministers were actively employed in proposing measures for the better management of the sister kingdom. Ireland had, for many centuries, formed one dominion with England, and, allowing to this country a superiority in the nomination of her king, she claimed and enjoyed, in every other respect, an equality of rights with Englishmen. As the privileges of subjects in both kingdoms were the same, the king's prerogatives were also the same. What the English parliaments were doing in England, the Irish parliaments imitated in Ireland; but as different interests and different views predominated in the parliament of each kingdom, different commercial regulations followed of course, and the opposite shores of the Irish channel became, by degrees mutually inimical. A wall of separation was raised between the two kingdoms, to the prejudice of both, and commercial concerns, which, in the beginning, were directed by a law of uniformity, came thus to be directed by a law of diversity. For want of a more regular and more defined system of connexion between the two islands, since the abolition of the feudal tenures, this undefined supremacy of the English parliament over Ireland was regarded as the sole remaining anchor that held Great Britain and Ireland together; as the only principle that made then one in political power and dominion. This system however was abolished under the Rockingham administration, in 1782; the motion for the abolition of the old constitution was followed by another proposition, declaring the absolute necessity of forming a new polity, which might connect the interests and privileges of the two kingdoms. But though the wisdom and even necessity, of this connexion were admitted, yet no measures were adopted for carrying it into effect. The three great objects to be accomplished for the formation of a

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1799.

Great object of the British government to excite and invigorate a coalition against France. Measures for the better administration in Ireland.

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1798.

Reasoning
of states-
men and
political
writers, fa-
vourable to
union be-
tween Bri-
tain and
Ireland.

constitutional connexion between the two nations were, an equality of interests, an equality of privileges, and an unity of power.ⁱ The two first of these purposes were already in a great measure provided for, and very little remained indeed that could be urged by any peaceable and well disposed Irishman, as a subject of complaint against the British government; but the unity of power or unity of defence between Great Britain and Ireland remained unsettled. To the want of a close political connexion between Great Britain and Ireland, both eminent statesmen and political writers imputed the growth of disaffection to such an alarming height. The following is the substance of their arguments:—If there had been a union between Britain and Ireland, we should not have been exposed to the evils of rebellion, cooperating with foreign enemies. Many as were the political and commercial advantages which must accrue to both countries from union, so as to render such a measure generally expedient, the recent transactions rendered close connexion more imperiously necessary at the present time; when the safety of the sister kingdom was assailed both by domestic treason and foreign force, what preserved the country but the aid of Britons? The only effectual remedy was to identify the interests of the two countries, to secure the same advantages in prosperity and in war, a free communication of the bravery, the resources and the power of the empire for its common defence! The internal situation of Ireland strongly demonstrated the necessity of a union. While Ireland continued disjoined, any attempt to provide a salutary cure for her intestine divisions, or to allay the animosities which arise out of her religious difference,^k would be impracticable. By considering the sects into which the population is divided, the remains of hostility between the English settlers and the native inhabitants, together with the unfortunate want of civilization more conspicuous there than in most parts of Europe, and the prevalence of jacobin principles^l among the very lowest classes of the people, we might compre-

ⁱ Annual Register for 1799, chap. xii.

^k This argument is powerfully enforced in Mr. Pitt's introductory speech, which was published.

^l Arthur Young, *passim*.

hend the disastrous state of Ireland. For these evils no remedy could be devised but an imperial legislation aloof from the prejudices, uninflamed by the passions, and uninfluenced by the jealousies, to which a local legislature must be liable.^m "The leading distinction in Ireland (said the unionists) is that of protestant and catholic : the protestant feels that the claims of the catholic for power and privilege (for this now is all) threatens his ascendancy ; and the catholic considers his exclusion as a grievance. Ireland in this respect forms an exception to every country in Europe, and runs counter to all received principles concerning religious establishments." The religion of the government and that of the multitude, are different, and the mass of property is in the hands of a smaller number. In the present state of things, full concession cannot be made to the catholics without endangering the existing constitution ; but under a united constitution, privileges may be extended to the catholics with much more safety. Ireland at present wants industry and capital ; capital may be imparted, and industry stimulated by close connexion with England. It is like a copartnery proposed by a great capitalist with a small, upon equal terms, and which consequently must be extremely beneficial to the poorer party : for these reasons, union between Great Britain and Ireland was ardently desired, not by government only, but by many enlightened patriots totally unconnected with administration. On the other hand, many who were not in the general tenor of their conduct adverse to administration, were inimical to a union between the two countries : some of these were evidently actuated by the most generous motives ; they dreaded union, as the destroyer of Irish independence ; they conceived that the projected connexion would be, not a relation of equality between two states agreeing to unite for common benefit, but a relation of superiority and dependence ; that Ireland so joined to England, would be merely a province ; that England would be the great receptacle of wealth, into which would be drawn all the products of Irish fertility, ingenuity, industry and skill ; that the trans-

Arguments of statesmen and writers adverse to union, from patriotic considerations.

^m Mr. Pitt's speech on the 31st Jan. 1799.

ⁿ Ibid.

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fer of the legislature to the British metropolis, would bring the nobility and gentry from Ireland to Britain ; that the provincial towns of Ireland, and the metropolis itself, would be deserted ; that capital, at present so much wanted to commerce and manufactures, would become still more defective, because so great a portion of its constituents would be absorbed into another country ; that industry, long so languid, and recently in some parts beginning to be excited, would, when such invectives were withdrawn, become more languid than ever ; that Ireland would again revert to the idleness and barbarity from which, left recently to herself, she was emerging. While a dependent on Britain, she had been in the most miserable and distressed state ; from the time that these fetters had been relaxed, she had begun to flourish : this recent and contrasted experience strongly forbade recurrence to real vassalage, under the pretext of an equal union. Ireland, as an independent kingdom, though not supremely powerful, would be more respectable and prosperous than as a tributary appendage of a great and extensive empire :^a besides, Britain, with all her commercial opulence and political power, was encumbered with an enormous debt ; must the growing enterprise and wealth of Ireland be subjected to burdens not incurred by herself, nor on her account : must Irish agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, be taxed to liquidate the accumulated profusion of the British government in all its belligerent projects for more than a century ? As to a partnership, it was not like a very rich man admitting a poor man upon his farm : it was a man of very extensive concerns, including immense engagements and responsibilities, proposing to take into his company an active, enterprising, and industrious trader, of growing prospect, who might at once bear a share in his burdens, and promote his trade. Ireland was likely to prosper much more as separate adventure, than by a joint stock company, or partnership. These were the sentiments and conclusions of Irish patriots, who, whether their conduct and interests were right or wrong, were actuated by a genuine love of order and prosperity of their country.

^a This sentiment is common to the Irish Nation. Mr. St. John says, at the close of his speech, essentially in the foregoing manner.

The citizens of Dublin were very hostile to a design, which they apprehended might desolate their beautiful and flourishing metropolis ; they indeed appeared to have imbibed the same fears respecting their city, that during the discussion of the British union, combining with a creative fancy, dictated the celebrated prophecy of lord Belhaven, so beautiful and eloquent as a poetic vision, and so totally falsified by experience.^o Irish imagination, not less vivid and fertile than Scottish, conceived that by union, grass would grow on the main streets of Dublin. There were others, who, without being inimical to the British ministers, were averse to the union from much less liberal and patriotic motives ; who did not so much consider the honour and general good of Ireland, as the exclusive advantages which their own parties and classes had long enjoyed. Many of the protestants conceived that a union was intended to be a prelude to catholic emancipation, which it would certainly facilitate. A junto of these, usually known by the name of the Beresford party, had long governed Ireland, and stimulated the most coercive measures in the various stages of progressive discontent : this combination was very inimical to union, which they apprehended might extend the supreme power and influence to other parties and denominations. Ireland indeed was ruled by an oligarchy, which very naturally reprobated a measure likely to produce a more extended and popular system of authority. Of the Irish lawyers, many were inimical to a change of legislature, which, transferring the supreme judicial court to the metropolis of Britain, would, they apprehended, carry a great part of their parliamentary business to English counsellors. Whilst from different motives, totally unconnected with opposition to government, great numbers of various classes and denominations deprecated a union between the two countries, the malcontents not only detested every additional scheme of connexion, but desired a total separation. The united Irishmen, who though repressed were still extremely numerous, desired a democratical republic entirely independent of England ; they concurred with the unionists in

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Selfish motives of certain parties and classes.

Views of the disaffected :

^o See Somerville's History of Queen Anne.

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1798.

of anti-min-
isterialists.

considering the proposed connexion as intended and fitted to counteract their project of complete disunion, and **not** only encouraged aversion to the scheme among their **own** associates, but very actively inflamed the other **causes of** dislike. To these different opponents of a closer **connex-**ion between the two islands, may be added the usual party in both countries, which had been uniformly anti-ministerial; these professing to regard with jealousy and suspicion every important design of administration, reprobated the project of union as a scheme of ministerial patronage in the various branches of the constitution. While union was known to be in contemplation, and before its several impugners had arranged and disposed their respective arguments, one preliminary position was advanced in which they all appeared to have concurred, though very different from the doctrines which some of them had maintained and practically exemplified in their late discussions with the votaries of disaffection; this was, that the Irish parliament was not competent to conclude a treaty of union; that so important a resolution could not be sanctioned but by the general consent of the people.

1799.

SUCH was the state of sentiments and affairs, when on the 22d of January, the king sent a message to both houses of parliament, stating the unremitting industry with which our enemies persevered in their avowed design of effecting the separation of Ireland from this kingdom: he recommended to the lords and commons to consider the most effectual means of finally defeating that design, by disposing the parliaments of both kingdoms to provide in the manner which they should judge the most expedient, for settling such a complete and final adjustment, as might best tend to improve and perpetuate a connexion essential for their common security, and consolidate the strength, power, and resources of the British empire. Mr. Pitt, in supporting the propriety of a union, exhibited a view of the settlement of 1782,^p which he contended was not designed to be final, and had really been found by experience totally inadequate to its purpose. Since that time nothing had been attempted to pro-

Mr. Pitt's
reasoning
on the ad-
vantages of
a union.

p Parliamentary Debates, on the 31st of January 1799

vide for that defective settlement, but the partial and inadequate measure of the Irish propositions, which were defeated by the persons who framed the resolution, but who formed no substitute in their room. Was there no probable case in which the legislatures of both kingdoms might differ? Had not one case actually arisen within the short space of sixteen years, the measure of the regency: the difference of object was evident, the Irish parliament had decided upon one principle, and the British parliament upon another. If in the present contest the opposition should have as much influence in Ireland, a vote for peace might be passed by the Irish parliament, and the efforts of Great Britain might be paralyzed by the sister kingdom.^q Ireland in such a state might neutralize its ports, prevent levies of recruits for the army and navy, and might endanger the very existence of the empire. Parliament undoubtedly wished to render the connexion between Great Britain and Ireland perpetual, but they would not promote a purpose so beneficial to both countries, if they neglected to bring forward some proposition which might secure the safety and advance the prosperity of Ireland, and remedy the miserable imperfections of the arrangement which was formed in 1782. It had been asserted by persons inimical to a union, that the Irish parliament was not competent to establish a measure which effected such a change in the constitution and relations of the country. He conceived that the parliament of Ireland, as of Britain, was fully competent to every purpose of legislation, and to enact laws for joining the two kingdoms as well as for any other purpose: a union was necessary to the interest of both countries, to improve their respective powers of productive industry, and to defend each other against internal commotion and foreign invasion: very great impediments now existed to the prosperity of Ireland, which would be entirely removed by a union with Great Britain.^r The union with Scotland had been as much opposed, and by nearly the same arguments, prejudices and misconceptions, creating similar alarms, and provoking similar outrages, to those which had lately

q Parliamentary Debates, on the 31st of January, 1799.

r Mr. Pitt's speech, Jan. 31st, 1799.

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1799.

His plan of
union be-
tween Bri-
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Ireland.

taken place in Dublin; yet the advantages which the northern part of the united kingdom had derived from the union were abundantly apparent from the prosperity of the capital manufacturing towns, and of the country in general. After this introductory speech, he submitted to the house various propositions, the objects of which were to establish the advantages which might be derived from the union; to explain the principles by which such a connexion might be more beneficial; to present the outlines of a plan which he framed for the purpose; and to declare the willingness of the British parliament to concur with the parliament of Ireland in effecting a union between the two kingdoms. He proposed that the kingdoms of Great Britain and Ireland, on a day to be appointed, should be joined into one kingdom by the name of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.* That the succession of the crown of the united kingdom should be limited and fixed agreeably to the present settlement of the crowns of the separate kingdoms, according to the existing laws, and conformably to the terms of the union between England and Scotland. That the kingdoms so united should have one parliament, to be denominated the parliament of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland; that such a number of lords spiritual and temporal, and such a number of commons, as should hereafter be fixed by the contracting parties, should be appointed to sit in the united parliament, and that on the part of Ireland they should be summoned, chosen, and returned as the Irish parliament should fix before the destined union. The churches of England and Ireland, the doctrine, worship, discipline, and government thereof, should continue the same in both countries as was established by the existing laws. His majesty's subjects in Ireland should be entitled to the same privileges, and should be on the same footing, in respect of trade and navigation, in all ports and places belonging to Great Britain, and in all cases with respect to which treaties might be made by his majesty, his heirs or successors, with any foreign power, as his majesty's subjects in Great Britain. The import and export duties

* Parliamentary Reports, Jan. 31st, 1799.

of Great Britain and Ireland should be reciprocally equalised. The expenses of the united kingdom should be defrayed by Great Britain in proportions to be established by their respective parliaments previously to the union: that for the like purpose it would be fit to propose, that all laws in force at the time of the union, and that all the courts of civil or ecclesiastical jurisdiction within the respective kingdoms, should remain as now by law established within the same, subject only to such alterations or regulations, from time to time, as circumstances might appear to the parliament of the united kingdom to require. These are the outlines of Mr. Pitt's scheme of union between Great Britain and Ireland, which he wished to be submitted to the Irish parliament, that if agreeable to that body it might be carried into effect.

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1799.

WHILE Mr. Pitt submitted these propositions to the English house of commons, the subject had been introduced into the Irish parliament, and a discussion had taken place, which having given the tone to British opposition it is proper to mention, before the narrative proceeds to the arguments adduced here against the minister's project. In the upper house of the Irish parliament, an address friendly to the union was carried by a decisive majority; in the lower it passed by a majority of one, and a motion consequent on it was afterwards lost. The opponents of the measure, in the Irish house of commons, did not enter into a full consideration of the advantages or disadvantages that might be likely to accrue from the scheme, nor prove that there was reason to induce the legislature to reject the proposition, but contented themselves with denying the competency of lawgivers to conclude such an agreement.³ To prove the incompetency of parliament, they did not reason from experience of fact and tendency, but from abstract principles, and the admission of theories that in no case had been reduced to practice: they rested their system on Mr. Locke's social compact, an hypothesis which, however well it might be intended by its wise and benevolent author, is one of the

Union proposed to the Irish parliament;

discussed and very vehemently opposed.

³ Irish Parliamentary Debates on the union, January 1799.

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 agreed to his mo-
 of the business, Mr.

Dundas very ably showed the beneficial effects of the union between Scotland and England. He here took a view of the evils apprehended by the Scotch anti-unionists, and demonstrated not only the complete failure of their predictions, but the immense advantages that have accrued to Scotland from its incorporation with England.^t Of these predictions lord Belhaven's were the most remarkable, as they exhibited in one view the apprehensions and arguments of the opposers of the union: "I think I see," said his lordship, "the royal state of boroughs walking in their desolate streets." So far, Mr. Dundas said, are these prophecies from being verified, that most of the boroughs are ten times increased in population, industry, and wealth. To prove this, it is only necessary to mention the names of Edinburgh, Glasgow, Aberdeen, Perth, Montrose, Dundee, and, in short, every other town of any name or consequence in that part of the united kingdom. These were strong facts, tending to controvert the reasoning of persons who asserted that a union would lessen the population, manufactures, and commerce of Dublin and other Irish cities and boroughs. The Scottish and anti-unionists had prophesied that a preference would be given to Englishmen over Scots in every employment; the event, as Mr. Dundas observed, proved totally different: natives of North Britain are almost exclusively employed in offices belonging to their own country, and a much greater number are established in England than if no union had taken place; we need only look into every profession throughout England from the Scotch gardener, baker, and hairdresser, up to the Scotch merchant, physician, lawyer, general, and admiral, to prove that, since the union, merit has been equally rewarded throughout the whole island, whether its professor was rocked in his cradle on the south or on the north side of the Tweed. The Scottish union tended to break asunder the bonds of feudal vassalage that had prevailed to so mischievous an excess in that country, and had allowed separate tyrants to exercise arbitrary power. The abolition of heritable jurisdictions, resulting from the union, had promoted agriculture^u to a very great

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Mr Dundas argues from the beneficial effects of union with Scotland; his remarks on the celebrated prophecy of lord Belhaven in the Scotch parliament.

^t Parliamentary Debates, February 1st, 1799.

^u In point of agriculture, Scotland, as is obvious to every one the least acquainted with the country, has undergone most extraordinary melioration from

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and rapidly increasing degree of improvement; like causes produced like effects; beneficial consequences of a similar kind would result to Ireland from union. Agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, mutually and reciprocally advanced each other; and whereas in the country of Scotland, there before existed only lord and dependent; the improvements from the union conjointly formed that middling class which in England had ever been found the most efficacious supporters of our laws, liberty, and constitution, from the oppression of feudal aristocracy in former times, and the licentiousness of democracy in latter. One of the chief causes of the evils under which Ireland laboured, was the want of this intermediate class: a parliament, with local interests and prejudices, was not likely to devise, at least steadily to employ means for the establishment of so important an order: by an imperial legislature only could so desirable a change be effected. The subject was also discussed in the house of peers, and great eloquence was displayed on both sides; and both houses of British parliament concurred in approving Mr. Pitt's propositions of union, and, in an address to the king requested his majesty to communicate to Ireland their views and resolutions. The king accordingly instructed the

the time that the union completely operated, on pursuits of a much more gradual improvement than commerce: this change has, no doubt, arisen in a considerable degree from the increase of capital that flowed into the country, from the time that the poor trader was admitted into partnership with the rich. It has not, however, been solely owing to commercial advantages, but in a great measure to political regulations resulting from the union. Whoever has spoken or written on this subject, considers the destruction of feudal vassalage as an event that would have never happened had Scotland possessed a separate parliament; because most of the members of that parliament, by vanity, pride, and ambition, would have been engaged to oppose a measure which reduced them from being petty princes on their own estates, to an equal submission to the laws with their vassals, and even poorest tenants. The vassals had before bestowed a servile attendance on their chieftain, at whose call they had been obliged to repair to his castle, and neglect their own private affairs. In that dependent state they had estimated themselves, and each other, according to their place in the favour of their liege lord; and their chief occupation had been to court his good graces, by being lounging retainers about his mansion. Emancipated from their thraldom, they attended to the cultivation of their lands. The generous pride of personal independence succeeded the contemptible vanity which had been gratified by second hand importance. To independence the surest road was industry: the subject for the employment of their industry was their hitherto neglected land: to their inferiors they communicated a portion of that independence which they themselves possessed, and began to enjoy: they let their farms upon long leases, and dispensed with the most humiliating services. The tenants were, by the security of their tenure, stimulated to unusual industry.

viceroy to lay the proffers and proceedings of the British before the Irish parliament.

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So important a subject occupied a great portion of literary ability* on both sides, and the press teemed with works on the justness and expediency of a union, with the means of carrying it most effectually into execution.

THE farther parliamentary proceedings of the present session chiefly regarded external defence and internal tranquillity. There was now very little ground for fearing an invasion, and the measures adopted respecting Ireland tended to prevent the recurrence of rebellion: still, however, it was necessary to be vigilant. The supplementary militia therefore, without being increased, were continued on the same footing as in the former years. The discontent and sedition which had so strongly prevailed, were now in a great measure dissipated: still, however, so much of malignity was by ministers and their supporters presumed to remain, as to render the suspension of the *habeas corpus* still necessary to be continued. A bill for continuing to his majesty the power of detaining suspected persons was introduced into parliament, and passed into a law.

Farther provisions for internal defence and security.

Renewed suspension of the *habeas corpus* act.

MR. WILBERFORCE renewed his annual motion for the abolition of the slave trade, but his efforts were again unavailing: parliament was prorogued on the 12th of July.

Parliament is prorogued.

* Of these one of the most eminent was a treatise published by dean Tucker, many years before, strongly recommending union with Ireland.—It is to be hoped that his predictions respecting that connexion will be as fully verified as the prophecies which he uttered concerning America. See vol. i. of this history, p. 542.

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...of indemnities—principle,
 ...for the losses of the stronger
 ...of the strongest—new requisitions of
 ...war—French plan of the
 ...federates—the French armies
 ...Grisons—under Jourdain and
 ...Duke Charles and Jour-
 ...defeated, and forced to evacuate
 ...Massena to the Grisons—by the
 ...obliged to retreat—Austrians
 ...reduce the northeast of Italy—
 ...Suvarrow with a Russian army—
 ...victories—affairs of Naples—
 ...the south, and concentrate their force in
 ...Italy—battle of Novi—Italy all reduced
 ...in Switzerland and the Grisons
 ...the Austrians—French driven from the
 ...Massena begins to restore the affairs of the
 ...Korsakow the Russian general—Suwar-
 ...into Switzerland—not properly supported
 ...Austrians—retires with the Russians toward
 ...—Naval transactions by the British in co-
 ...with the allies in Italy—the British fleets block
 ...of Holland, France, and Spain.—Expedition
 ...of York to Holland—its purposes—well
 ...of success—plan of cooperation between
 ...Britain and Russia—British armament sails—
 ...at the Helder—battle and victory—Dutch
 ...successive battles and victories of the
 ...troops—advance to Alkmaer—battle at Limmen—
 ...successes in the Zuyder Zee—British army
 ...to fall back—difficult situation of the army—sus-
 ...of arms—British troops withdrawn from Hol-
 ...—Short meeting of parliament in September—supplies
 —proposed.

AT the treaty of Campo Formio it had been agreed, that a congress should be held at Rastadt, composed solely of the plenipotentiaries of the Germanic empire and of the French republic, for the purpose of concluding a negotiation between those powers; and this congress had met in December 1797. To follow the meeting through the various details which occupied their attention, would be foreign to the purpose of the present history and the accounts shall be confined to such proceedings as produced the rupture with France, and the renewal of the confederacy with Britain.

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Congress at
Rastadt.

By the treaty of Campo Formio it was agreed, that the Rhine should form the boundary between the French and German empires, and that a system of indemnities should make up to the princes of the Germanic empire for the losses which they should incur by this extension of the French empire; the proposed project was to be the secularization of the ecclesiastical estates; but in applying this general principle, there was a great interference of interests. Prussia and Austria proposed first the secularization of the chief ecclesiastical possessions; in other words, that because the great powers had sustained losses by the conquests of the French, the smaller should indemnify them for these losses. The ecclesiastical electors thought it vain to controvert the general principle of making the weak pay for the losses of the strong: but were for shifting the losses from themselves to a lower order: the electoral archbishops proposed to be indemnified for their sacrifices to the higher powers, from the possessions of the prince bishops. The prince bishops required the suppression of abbeys, monasteries, and the inferior prelacies. *Simple as the principle of secularization was, yet the adjustment of such an intermixture of pretensions was not without difficulty.* France indeed was not to be charged with enhancing the difficulty by any intricacy of her own claims, these were very explicit and definite: she, in the first place, was to occupy all the left bank for her share, and was afterwards to assist the Germans on the other, in settling their respective boundaries. The reason which she adduced for appropriating such an extent of territory was, *not the love of dominion, but the convenience of demarcation.*

Project of
indemnities.

Principle, that the weaker should pay for the losses of the stronger, through the power of the strongest.

New requisitions of the French.

had manifested itself even in the heart of the Austrian capital,^a and inspired by the proffers of military aid from Russia, and of pecuniary supply from Britain, they prepared for force, by which only the exorbitant demands of France could be resisted. The directory easily discovered^a sentiments and designs so naturally resulting from their own series of ambition and haughtiness ; learning that the Russians were on their march to the south, they no longer doubted that they were destined to cooperate with the imperial army in Italy : having three great armies ready for motion, they threatened to cross the Rhine, unless the Russians should retreat from the confines of Germany ; and finding that Austria would not yield to their demands, they ordered their ambassadors to leave Rastadt, and immediately prepared to commence war.

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are
resisted.

THE French, as we have seen, had totally changed the War. plan of war : their system consisted wholly in pursuing the enemy without intermission ; courting opportunities of engagements ; and keeping their whole force together, without dividing it for the purpose of carrying on sieges : the armies of France, instead of investing particular forts and towns, attacked whole countries. Fortresses which heretofore arrested, occupied and consumed armies, were passed with unconcern, insulated as it were by the enormous mass. To this extension of the theatre of war they were invited by their numbers, the superiority of their artillery, and the provision that was made by their moveable columns for the celerity of their motion. The plan of the directory was the same that had been pursued in 1796 and 1797 ; the invasion of the hereditary states of the house of Austria, and the junction of the French armies under the walls of Vienna. Of three hundred and twenty thousand men who at this time composed the French army, forty-five thousand, under the orders of general Massena, occupied Switzerland and the left bank of the Rhine, almost from its source to the western extremity of the lake of Constance, and from that point, the two banks of the

French
plan of the
campaign.

^a Especially in the conduct of Bernadotte the ambassador, who hoisted the three coloured flag of revolutionary democracy in sight of the imperial palace. See Periodical Journals of the year 1798.

^a See State Papers, Notes of the French ministers to the deputations of the empire, January 2d, and January 31st, 1799.

SECRET

Management found it necessary to return to the left bank.
But the management operations in Switzerland were at
least affected by the transactions in Italy, that it is nec-
essary to state the narrative in Campione operations.

The Austrians invaded Italy.

For a number of years, the Austrians had been in Italy, at the commencement of 1805, consisted of nearly eighty thousand French soldiers, and more than fifty thousand Poles, Swiss, Piedmontese, Germans, Russians, or Neapolitans ; they were divided into two armies, one of which was called the army of Italy, and the other of Naples : the army of Italy, consisting of nearly thousand, occupied the Modenese, the state of Genoa, Piedmont, Milanese, the Valaisine, and the counties of Brescia, Bergamo, and Mantua. The government of France, which a general hatred of the French national army, reduced the number of men who could be employed in active operations to about fifty thousand. They were a concentration on the banks of the lake of Geneva, at the Minio, and of the Po ; from the frontiers of the Tyrol to the mouth of the Po. The army of Naples, consisting of about forty thousand, occupied the kingdom, and the conquered part of his Sicilian majesty's dominions, as also Rome, and the different provinces of the kingdom. The object proposed through the army of Italy was general cooperation with the army of Switzerland, to attack the Austrian dominions, from the Adriatic to the Tyrol and Carinthia, in the direction to Vienna. If the French had been successful, the grand army, composed of three divisions, towards Vienna, would have extended from the gulf of Venice to the confines of Hungary. The emperor's ministers having taken a view of the various causes of discomfiture in the former part of the war, found treachery to have prevailed among Austrian officers : and dismissing all those whom there were grounds to suspect, substituted others in their place. The French had also derived great benefit from their train of artillery : the Austrian counsellors in this campaign took care that the imperial forces should equal their adversaries in ordnance. Scherer, the French commander, took the field in March : on the 26th of that month, en-

**The American
crimes are
wide open.**

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Successes.
They re-
cover the
northeast
of Italy.

countering the Austrians commanded by general Kray, he was repulsed and compelled to fly towards Mantua. Successively defeated, the republicans were driven from the left bank of the Adige. The Italians now joining the Austrian army, assisted in annoying the retreating French, and all the territories that had been extorted from the Venetians were evacuated; when marshal Suwarrow, with twenty-five thousand men, joining the Austrians, took the chief command.

Arrival of
marshal
Suwarrow
with the
Russian
army.

Military
operations
and victo-
ries.

Skilful
movement
of Moreau.

LEAVING Kray to invest the fortresses of Peschiera and Mantua, the Russian commander pursued the enemy that had retired to the Milanese: overtaking their army at Adda, on the 27th of April, he entirely defeated them, and compelled them to evacuate the Milanese. Peschiera was, meanwhile, captured by Kray; and except Mantua, the whole northeast of Italy was recovered from the republicans. Meanwhile Moreau was placed at the head of the French; who, seeing the force of the enemy, determined on a plan of defence, by occupying successive posts and defiles, which should prevent the confederates from any material advantage, and retard their progress until effectual reinforcements might arrive. He therefore occupied a position which secured a communication between France and Switzerland on the one hand, and Macdonald on the other.

Affairs of
Naples;
the French
evacuate
the south
of Italy,
and con-
centrate
their force
in the
north.

GENERAL MACDONALD had been prevented from extending his conquests in Naples, by the gradual diminution of his army. By the threats of descent from the Turks, the Russians, and the English, who hovered over the coasts of the upper and lower seas, he had been obliged to content himself with securing the submission of the capital, putting the coast in a state of defence, and completing the reduction of the two provinces of Abruzzo and Capitana, and of the two principalities. Such was the situation of Macdonald, when he received from the directory an order to evacuate the kingdom of Naples, and join Moreau. According to his instructions, he deposited all power in the hands of the patriots; leaving, for their support, republican corps that had been raised in the country, and the garrisons of St. Elmo, of Capua, and Gaeta. Having traversed the Roman estates, he arrived at Florence on

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the 24th of May; and having there joined several detachments of republican troops, he found himself at the head of twenty-five thousand men. With this force, Macdonald proposed to join Moreau, who was at a hundred and fifty miles distance; and to overcome the multiplied obstacles which were presented both by the nature of the country and the enemy. To effect a union with his colleague, he had two roads, on different sides of the Apennines: the one goes along the Riviera di Ponente, and is known under the name of the Corniche; but it could not admit of the passage of artillery or even of baggage. The second road was that between the Apennines and the Po, across the duchies of Modena, Parma, and Placentia. This last route, though the more circuitous, he chose for his march; but secured the road by the Corniche, in order to retain that communication with Moreau. Suwarrow saw that if Macdonald should join Moreau, he would have a much more formidable force to encounter than any which he had before combated in the present campaign, and applied for reinforcements. Accordingly, eleven thousand Russians, and fourteen thousand Austrians commanded by general Bellegarde, arrived to his assistance in the beginning of June. The month of June was occupied by Macdonald and Moreau in attempting to effect a junction; and extraordinary efforts of generalship were exerted by the three commanders, both in forming schemes, and in reciprocally disconcerting antagonists. Suwarrow proposed to combine defensive with offensive operations, to occupy a strong line of posts on the west, in order to check the advances of Moreau, and on the east to bend his principal efforts against Macdonald. Both Moreau and Macdonald, on the other hand, wished severally to avoid a general engagement, that their strength might not be impaired when they should be united. Macdonald, after several conflicts with detachments of imperialists, was, on the 16th of June, advanced as far as the river Trebia;* and Suwarrow had now reached the same place. On the 17th, a course of battles commenced, which, lasting three days, called forth from both the Russian and French generals.

* See Annual Register, 1799, ch. xvi.

efforts not unworthy of the Carthagenian hero^f who first gave celebrity to the scene of action. Macdonald being at length defeated, was for several weeks retarded from accomplishing his purpose, and his force was considerably reduced. Hastening back to meet Moreau, Suwarrow compelled that general to retreat. Macdonald meanwhile had retraced his own course back to Tuscany: foiled in the first route which he had for so good reason chosen, there now remained for him only the left hand tract by the Corniche, impassable, as we have seen to baggage and artillery. He had no other means of saving his artillery and baggage, including the spoils of Italy, than by sending them by sea, and this was a very dangerous expedient, as the English men of war hovered over the coast. Impelled however by necessity, he sent his various stores to Leghorn to be embarked. Meanwhile, Suwarrow, having compelled Moreau to retreat, endeavoured to improve his victory over Macdonald by reconquering Tuscany. To this attempt the dispositions of the inhabitants were extremely favourable; and they were farther inspirited by the English envoy, Mr. Windham, to profit by the disasters of the French, reassert their independence, and re-establish their sovereign. About 25,000 took arms with this intention, and were soon joined by very considerable reinforcements. Diminished as his force was, Macdonald might easily have matched a feeble and desultory multitude; yet such an attempt was not at present his object. Freed from every incumbrance, he now took the route of the Corniche, and made his way towards Moreau, whom, near the end of July, he joined in the neighbourhood of Genoa, with the remainder of his army, now reduced to about thirteen thousand men: the whole army of the French in Italy amounted to about fifty thousand. During this period, Mantua and Alessandria⁵ had been captured by the imperialists; and while affairs were so prosperous in the north, they were no less flourishing in the south of Italy. After the evacuation of Naples by Macdonald, cardinal Ruffo, at the head of the royalist army, consist-

^f account of the battle of Trebia, between Hannibal and the Roman
Sempronius, Livy, book xxi. near the end.
—⁵ *Journal Register* 1799, ch. xv.

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The king
of the two
Sicilies re-
stored by
Nelson.

Rome is
delivered
from the
republi-
cans by
Trow-
bridge.

ing of more than twenty thousand men, and some hundreds of Russians, defeated the republican levies of men which were opposed to him, and marched against the capital ; which, on the 20th of June, surrendered by capitulation. A few days after an army of allies came into port, animated by the activity and directed by the talents of admiral Nelson, and his gallant and able second, captain Trowbridge. A body of English, Russian, and Portuguese troops, having obtained possession of the castles of Ovo and Nuovo, on the 26th ; under the command of captain Trowbridge, invested the castle of St. Elmo, on the 29th. The garrison, unable to resist such a force, and such commanders, capitulated : the other towns successively surrendered ; and the king of the two Sicilies was restored to his throne and dominions by the British hero, whose splendid achievements had excited and invigorated, in various parts of the globe, the most courageous efforts for vindicating the independence of nations against the boundless ambition of revolutionary conquest. From Naples lord Nelson turned his attention to the papal territories, and sent captain Trowbridge with a small armament towards Rome. The inhabitants joyfully flocked to the standard of their deliverers : the republicans finding resistance hopeless, surrendered by capitulation, and evacuated the Roman dominions before the end of July. Tuscany was by this time completely recovered. Piedmont was chiefly in the possession of the confederates ; and the French, who in the end of March had been masters of all Italy, now occupied only a small corner in the northwest. In the beginning of August, Joubert was appointed to command in the place of Moreau, who was sent to head the army on the Rhine. The confederates were now employed in the siege of Tortona, the last fortress which remained to the republicans in Piedmont ; and twenty thousand men were on their march from Alessandria and Mantua to join Suwarrow. Joubert, desirous of making one attempt to relieve Tortona, resolved to attack the Russian general before the reinforcement should arrive. The French amounted to about forty thousand men : the combined force was more considerable ; and, besides the superiority of the latter in point of numbers, they were

choice troops, better disciplined, and flushed with recent victories. The republicans, on the 15th of August, prepared to offer battle; and, with that view, were formed in an encampment placed upon the hills which are situated behind the town of Novi; and, though not very high, yet are extremely steep. Notwithstanding the strength of this position, Suwarrow, the next morning at five o'clock, advanced to engage the enemy. The republicans received the attack of the imperial troops with their usual firmness and intrepidity, and drove back their centre and right wing three several times. The French appeared to be immovable in their position, and sustained with equal valour repeated charges: at noon they confidently expected the victory; but sixteen battalions of Austrians arriving on the right flank of the enemy, made such an impression, that it was thrown into confusion; and general Joubert, endeavouring to rally his men, was himself mortally wounded. Deprived of their commander, and outnumbered by their opponents, the republicans were at length completely overpowered. Suwarrow obtained a most signal victory, which finally decided the fate of the campaign. Tortona was captured; Piedmont was entirely recovered; and of the acquisitions of Bonaparte in Italy, there now remained to the French only the small territory of Genoa. Suwarrow having so effectually accomplished the purposes of his command in Italy, prepared to carry his victorious arms against the republicans in Switzerland.

WHILE the French by the combined armies were driven from their Cisalpine conquests, Massena was engaged in the most strenuous efforts on the Rhine. The success in Italy invigorated the allies in their operations among the Alps, and compelled Massena to act upon the defensive. He was driven from the Grisons, and the Austrians crossing the Rhine, established themselves on the left bank. Advancing in the career of victory, the Germans drove the French from the strong and important position at St. Gothard, established themselves in Switzerland, and opened with the army of Italy a line of communication, which, on the other side, extended through Suabia to the banks of the Maine; so that from Mentz to Italy, there was a chain of forces advancing against the

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1799.
Battle of
Novi and
victory of
Suwarrow.

Italy is all
reduced,
except
Genoa.

Campaign
in Switzer-
land and
the Gri-
sons.

The
French are
driven
from the
Grisons.
Successes
of the
Austrians.

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French republic, of which the army of the Alps constituted the central link. During the month of June the imperialists proceeded rapidly into Switzerland, and after the most obstinate conflicts, made themselves masters of Zurich. But considerable detachments of the Austrians having been drafted to Italy, and a very great body of Russians being still expected, the archduke, without farther pursuing his conquests, contented himself with preserving his acquisitions, until the allies should arrive. The present force of Massena being too much reduced for immediately resuming offensive movements, he employed himself in preparations. This state of inaction continued, with no important interruption on either side, from the end of June till near the end of August. The exertions and successes of the confederates meanwhile produced accessions to the alliance. The duke of Wirtemberg and duke of Bavaria, the greatest secondary princes of southern Germany, joined the house of Austria in its efforts against the republicans. The soul of the combination was England, which afforded money to assist the Austrians, prompt the Russians, and stimulate the German princes. The great allied powers continued their attempts to induce the king of Prussia to take a share in a combination which they represented as necessary to his own safety. This prince however, still more jealous of Austria than of France, would not join in exertions by which he conceived, that if successful, Austria would be ultimately aggrandized; and if unsuccessful, the disasters would fall upon himself. Against revolutionary doctrines and designs, he thought that the best antidote was to preserve for his people the comforts of peace, which prevented the necessity of oppressive imposts, promoted industry and prosperity, and thereby precluded the most powerful causes of discontent: he therefore persisted in avoiding all interference in the contest. The secondary and other princes of northern Germany were retained in their neutrality by the influence and power of the king of Prussia. The elector of Bavaria and the duke of Wirtemberg, respectively engaged to furnish ten thousand and six thousand men, for which they were to be subsidized by England.

FROM this time, it is believed, that a difference subsisted between the courts of Vienna and Petersburg concerning farther operations. The Austrians, considering their acquisitions as *ends*, wished to preserve what they had obtained.² The Russians, regarding their conquests merely as *means* of reestablishing the house of Bourbon, desired to pursue the successful career. Britain, without avowing the same object as Russia, agreed in her policy, and was anxious to press as extensively and effectually as possible upon France. This diversity of views and schemes between the two imperial courts soon manifested itself in the belligerent operations.

THE French government, in order to preserve Switzerland, proposed to create a diversion on the western borders of Germany, and the execution of this project was the object of the army which Moreau was called from Italy to command. In consequence of this project, a powerful host of republicans, passing the Rhine, invaded Germany near the end of August, and entering Suabia, levied various contributions. About this time, general Korsakow arrived in Switzerland, with a great body of Russians; and Suwarrow, after his signal victories in Italy, was advancing to the same quarter. The Russian general had expected that the archduke Charles was in Switzerland, to cooperate with his efforts; but that prince, when the republicans entered the empire, marched towards the Lower Rhine, in order to repress the incursion of the French; and the defence of Switzerland was now chiefly left to the Russians. The force of the allies being so much weakened by the departure of the archduke, Korsakow, and Hotze (left commander of the Austrians in Switzerland), contracted their plan of offensive operations. It was now projected merely to recover the possession of the small cantons, and compel Massena to retire to the Aar. Korsakow had several obstinate conflicts with the republicans, with various success; but in the course of the battles, the French had acted with so much skill in the management of their positions, that the Russians, when they were apparently victorious by their intrepid

² Annual Register, 1799, chap. xv.

and impetuous valour, were really surrounded from the masterly skill of their antagonists. At Zurich, Korsakow was encompassed on all sides; and Massena, knowing the terrible prowess of the Russian soldiers, endeavoured to profit by the advantages which he had gained, without driving them to desperation. He had it in his power to intercept their retreat, but not with a force sufficient to overcome them, if driven to extremity; he therefore left, by the road to Winterthur, one outlet unobstructed. Meanwhile he offered to Korsakow a capitulation, by which he might quietly retreat to the Rhine; but this proposal was totally disregarded. Korsakow began his retreat by the outlet left for him; and Massena, with much pleasure, permitted his departure without attempting any obstruction. The Russian however having merely begun his march in the undisputed course, suddenly took a different direction, and attacked a great body of the republicans who were advantageously posted on heights that commanded the road. The French, though they had not expected an attack, yet soon prepared themselves for skilful resistance. They suffered the Russians to approach, and then opened a tremendous fire of musketry and artillery. The Russians fought with astonishing courage, but without concert and design, and were therefore totally unequal to the valour, skill, and ability of their adversaries. Overwhelmed along the whole of their column by the grape shot of the French, whose flying artillery operated on this occasion with terrible effect, they rushed repeatedly with fixed bayonets on the enemy; and forced them, for some moments, to give way. But, as the prodigies of valour performed by the Russian infantry, neither were, nor indeed could be turned to any account by the superior officers, in their present circumstances, they served only to render the defeat more complete, as well as sanguinary. General Korsakow, with the remains of his army, forced forward and passed the Rhine. Such was the situation of affairs when marshal Suwarrow arrived in Switzerland, in the month of September. The Russian general having successfully executed his march into Switzerland, expected a very powerful cooperation, which would enable him to be equally successful as he had been

defeats
Korsakow,
the Russian
general.

Suwarrow
marches
into Swit-
zerland.

in Italy. Not apprised of the circumstances which had compelled the retreat of Korsakow, he fully relied on the aid of that general, as well as of the Austrians; and in that confidence advanced into the country which was now possessed by the enemy. But, on penetrating into Switzerland, he found that his countrymen were departed, and that he had very little cooperation to expect from the Austrians. He was now obliged to act on the defensive, and to retreat towards the Rhine. Korsakow, rallying his troops, recrossed the river to support his countrymen; and various bloody engagements took place between the Russians and republicans. Suwarrow, though compelled to retire, never suffered a defeat; and at last, in October, seeing no assistance from the Austrians, passed the Rhine.

not properly supported by the Austrians, he retires towards Germany.

PRINCE CHARLES having deemed it necessary, instead of cooperating with the Russian generals, to march into Suabia, there had to encounter the French army. After various and indecisive operations, he was informed of the misfortunes in Switzerland, and departed towards Suwarrow. Between the army which he left, and the republicans, repeated conflicts took place, without any important event; and the French repassed the Rhine: and thus the Rhine, from its source to the ocean, again became the boundary of the republic.

THE departure of the archduke for Suabia was, by military critics, deemed unnecessary, as a detachment might have sufficed. This movement, however, was not imputed to an error of the commander, but to political jealousy of the cabinet. The event of the campaign in Italy was favourable to the allies; but in Switzerland, they lost in the end the advantages of the beginning; and besides the causes and circumstances of the discomfiture, tended to break the combination through which only they could succeed against France. Paul, about this time, published a manifesto, declaring his intention to restore the ancient government of France, and to replace all the conquests of the republic on the footing which they were on before the war. If the German princes would cooperate with him, he would exert his whole strength by sea

CHAP.
LXIV.

1799.
The British fleets
block up
the ports
of France,
Spain, and
Holland.

and land; but if they withheld their assistance, he would withdraw his forces.ⁱ

WHILE the allies were thus engaged in endeavouring to make an impression upon France, Britain undertook an expedition to detach the Batavian republic from its connexion with the French; and to extricate her ancient ally from that domination which she naturally supposed a great portion of the inhabitants to bear only from necessity. The efforts of our illustrious commanders, in the two preceding years, had so reduced the maritime strength of France and her dependencies, that though both Spain and she had a great number of ships, they had no efficient naval force; and their harbours, during 1799, were under a state of blockade.

Expedition
of the duke
of York to
Holland.

THUS free from the apprehensions of maritime interruption or invasion, government determined to send a powerful armament to Holland. The chief command was conferred on the duke of York: the land force was to consist of about thirty thousand men, including a body of Russians auxiliaries. On the 13th of August sir Ralph Abercrombie set sail from Deal with the first part of the army, and a fleet commanded by rear-admiral Mitchel, joining lord Duncan in the north seas, on the 21st they came in sight of the Dutch coast; but from weather extremely boisterous, notwithstanding the season of the year, could not attempt to land till the 27th. Admiral Mitchel, with very great skill and ability, covered the landing of the troops, which sir Ralph superintended with equal intrepidity and vigour. Inspired by mutual confidence, sameness of wish, and a thorough reliance on the courage, professional knowledge, and wisdom of their respective leaders, both the army and the navy acted with the most perfect unanimity.^k The enemy posted at the Helder had made a vigorous opposition to our troops; but were entirely defeated; and some days afterwards, the Dutch fleet in the Texel surrendered to admiral Mitchel. From this time to the 13th of September, the rest of the British forces, together with the Russians, arrived; and

Troops
land at the
Helder.

Battle and
victory.

Dutch fleet
surrenders.

ⁱ See State Papers, Paul's declaration, September 15th, O. S. 1799.
^k In the strong professional language of admiral Mitchel "*they pulled heavily together.*"

His royal highness having that day joined the army, found himself at the head of thirty thousand men.¹ The prince resolved on a general attack; and on the 19th, advanced with his army, extending in four columns from the right to the left, towards the enemy, who were posted at Alkmaer. The column to the extremity of the right, consisted chiefly of the Russians in twelve battalions, assisted by the seventh light dragoons, and general Manners's brigades, and was commanded by the Russian lieutenant general De Hermann, and extended to the sand hills on the coast near the famous Camperdown; on which heights a column of the enemy was very advantageously posted. The second division, commanded by lieutenant general Dundas, consisted of two squadrons of the eleventh light dragoons, two brigades of foot guards, and major general His highness prince William's brigade. Its object was to force the enemy's position at Walmen-huysen and Schorel-dam, and to cooperate with the column under lieutenant general De Hermann. The third column, commanded by lieutenant general sir James Pulteney, consisted of two squadrons of the eleventh light dragoons, major general Don's brigade, and major general Coote's brigade. This column was intended to take possession of Ouds Carspel on the head of the Lange dyke, a great road leading to Alkmaer.² The fourth and left column, under the command of lieutenant general sir Ralph Abercrombie, consisted of two squadrons of the eighteenth light dragoons, major general the earl of Chatham's brigade, major general Moore's brigade, major general the earl of Cavan's brigade, first battalion of British grenadiers of the line, first battalion of the light infantry of the line, and the twenty-third and fifty-fifth regiments, under colonel Macdonald, and was destined to turn the enemy's right on the Vlyder Zee. To the attainment of these manifold and important objects, the most formidable obstacles presented themselves. To the right, on which side the Russians were to advance, the country was almost covered with woods, especially near the village of Bergen, where the

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XLIV.

1799.
The British troops advance to Alkmaer. Battle of September 19th.

¹ See the duke of York's letters to Mr. Dundas, London Gazette, September 19th. ² See the duke of York's letter to Mr. Dundas, London Gazette extraordinary, September 24th 1799.

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LXIV.

1799.

Battle of
Bergen,
October
2d.

principal force of the enemy was placed. The Russians, advancing with an intrepidity that overlooked the powerful resistance they were to meet, were, by their impetuous courage, transported beyond the bounds of that order which would have ensured safety and success; and, after a most valiant contest, obliged to retire with considerable loss. Both the second and third columns had also great difficulties to encounter in the deep ditches and canals by which the scene of their operations was intersected. The second, under general Dundas, after renewing the battle with promising success, was at length obliged to retire. Lieutenant general sir James Pulteney, with the third, effected his object in carrying by storm the post of Ouds Carspel at the head of the Lange dyke; but the disappointment of the right preventing our army from profiting by this advantage, it became expedient to withdraw the third column. The same circumstances led to the necessity of recalling the corps under lieutenant general sir Ralph Abercrombie, who had proceeded without interruption to Hoorn, of which city he had taken possession, together with its garrison. The whole of the army returned to its former position. Autumn 1799 was remarkably rainy, and even tempestuous; such weather in a country naturally so wet, and also so intersected by canals and ditches, for some time suspended the operations of the British army. On the 2d of October, the storm having abated, the British army commenced an attack on the whole of the enemy's line. A severe and obstinate action ensued, which lasted from six in the morning until the same hour at night. The right wing of the British army was commanded by sir Ralph Abercrombie, the centre division by general Dundas, and the left by major general Burrard: all of whom eminently distinguished themselves on this day, by their cool courage and excellent conduct.ⁿ The first impression was made on the adverse line, by the right wing of our army: the next by the centre; and lastly, the left wing also overcame all resistance. The enemy being entirely defeated, retired in the night from the positions which they had occupied on the Lange dyke, the Koe dyke

ⁿ See letter of the duke of York to Mr. Dundas, *London Gazette* extraordinary, October 24th, 1799.

at Bergen, and on the extensive range of sand hills between this last and Egmont-op-Zee. On the night after the battle, the British troops lay on their arms; and on the 3d of October moved forwards, and occupied the positions of Egmont-op-Hoof, Egmont-op-Zee, the Lange dyke, Alkmaer, and Bergen.

THE enemy's force was computed to be about twenty-five thousand men, of which by far the greater part were French. The duke of York, in the account he gave of the action of the second of October, bestowed warm and liberal praise on the whole army under his command. "Under the Divine Providence," says his royal highness, "this signal victory obtained over the enemy, is to be ascribed to the animated and persevering exertions which have been at all times the characteristics of the British soldier, and which, on no occasion, were ever more eminently displayed: nor has it often fallen to the lot of any general to have such just cause of acknowledgement for distinguished support. I cannot in sufficient terms express the obligations I owe to general sir Ralph Abercrombie and lieutenant general Dundas, for the able manner in which they conducted their respective columns; whose success is in no small degree to be attributed to their personal exertions and example: the former had two horses shot under him." Very distinguished praise is also bestowed by his highness on colonel Macdonald, lord Paget, major general Coote, general sir James Pulteney, and many other officers. The loss sustained by the enemy exceeded four thousand men killed, about three hundred prisoners, seven pieces of cannon, and a great many tumbrils. But the victory obtained by the British army was dearly purchased by the loss of about fifteen hundred men killed and wounded.^o The exhausted state of the troops, from the vast difficulties and fatigues they had to encounter, prevented the British commander from taking that advantage of the enemy's retreat, which, in any other country, and under any other circumstances, would have been the consequence of the operations of the 2d of October.

^o Among the wounded was the brave and accomplished marquis of Huntley; who for many months suffered very severely, but at length recovered.

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LXIV.

1799.

Battle of
Limmen.

THE French general having taken post at the narrow isthmus between Beverwick and the Zuyder Zee, the duke of York determined, if possible, to force him from thence, before he should have an opportunity of strengthening by works the short and very defenceless line which he occupied; and to oblige him still further to retire, before he could be joined by the reinforcements which he was informed were upon their march. Preparatively, therefore, to a general and forward movement, he ordered the advanced posts which the army had taken on the 3d, in front of Alkmaer and the other places already mentioned, to be pushed forward; which was done accordingly on the 4th. At first, little opposition was shown, and the British succeeded in taking possession of the villages of Schermerhoorn, Archer Slood, Limnen, Baccum, and of a position on the sand hills near Wyck-op-Zee. The column, consisting of the Russian troops, under the command of major general D'Essen, attempted to gain a height in front of their intended advanced post at Baccum which was material to the security of that point; but was vigorously opposed by a strong body of the enemy, which obliged sir Ralph Abercrombie to move up for the support of that column with the reserve of his corps. The enemy, on their part, advanced their whole force: the action became general along the line from Limnen to the sea, and was maintained on both sides until night, when the Batavian and French army retired, leaving the British masters of the field of battle. This conflict was as severe as any of those that had been fought since the arrival of our troops in Holland; and, in proportion to the numbers engaged, attended with as great a loss. Of the British 600 were killed or wounded; of the Russians, not less than 1200. The loss of the enemy was also very great, in the killed, wounded, and prisoners which fell into our hands to the number of 500. The post to which the British army directed its march was Haerlem: but intelligence was received from the prisoners taken in this action, that the enemy, who had been just reinforced by 6000 infantry, had strengthened the position of Beverwick, and thrown up very strong works in its rear; and farther, that they had stationed a large force at Parmirind, in an almost

inaccessible position, covered by an inundated country ; the debouches from which were strongly fortified, and in the hands of the enemy ; and farther still, that, as our army advanced, this corps was placed in our rear. Informed of all these circumstances, the British commander naturally paused. The obstacles here enumerated might have been overcome by the persevering courage of the troops under his command, had not the state of the weather, the ruined condition of the roads, and the total want of the necessary supplies, arising from the above causes, presented additional difficulties which demanded the most serious consideration. From the people, instead of cooperation, he experienced hostility ; indeed, if they had been disposed, of which they manifested no appearance, fear of the French republicans would have impelled them to distress the British troops. The duke of York, therefore, having maturely weighed the situation in which the army under his command was thus placed, thought it advisable, with the concurrence of general Abercrombie and the lieutenant generals of the army, to withdraw the troops from this advanced position, and fall back to Shagenbrug. There the enemy harassed our line of defence by daily, though partial attacks ; the most serious of which was made by general Daendels in person. That general, on the 10th of October, assaulted the right wing of the British forces, upon an advanced post near Winckle, under the command of prince William of Gloucester ; and with six thousand men and six pieces of cannon, endeavoured to force this post by every exertion. To resist this formidable attack, the prince had only twelve hundred men, and two pieces of cannon ; yet he obliged the Dutch general to retreat, with the loss of two hundred men killed, and one French general. But general Daendels being almost immediately reinforced by four thousand Dutch troops, the prince of Gloucester was under the necessity of falling back to Cohorn. The loss of the English in this action did not exceed three killed and about twelve wounded. The prince, during the action, had his horse shot under him ; but he received no injury himself, though exposed to the greatest personal danger, under a heavy fire, being

The
British
troops fall
back.

frequently in the front of the line, animating the exertion of his troops by his example.

His efforts of our marine, under the conduct of admiral Mitchell, in the Zuyder Zee, and on the other parts of the coast, were continued, amidst these transactions on land, with unabated activity. Many gunboats, and several lightships of war, were taken from the enemy; and an attack that, on the 11th of October, they made on the town of Bommel, which had come into our possession, as above related, was gallantly repulsed by the British sailors and marines, under the command of captain Boorder of the *Wolverene* bombship.

On considering the various obstacles to his expedition, the duke of York despatched his secretary, colonel Brownrigg, to London, in order to give a circumstantial account of the state of affairs in Holland, and to receive his majesty's farther instructions. The colonel soon returned to the army, with orders for the immediate evacuation of Holland. Transports were sent for this purpose, and works were thrown up on the commanding heights of Keekdown, to cover the embarkation of our troops. On the 17th of October, a suspension of arms in Holland was agreed on between the captain general of the English and Russian army, on the one part, and the generals Brune and Daendels on the other. It was stipulated by the parties, that all prisoners should be given up on both sides, those on parole, as well as others. It was further stipulated, as the price of permission to the British troops to reembark on board their transports without molestation, that eight thousand of the seamen, whether Batavian republicans or French, who were prisoners in England, should be given up to the French government. The combined English and Russian army was to evacuate Holland before the end of November. No time was lost in the embarkation of

the British and Russian troops; and, together with these, a great number of Dutch royalists, to the amount of near two thousand, came to England. The Russians were quartered in Jersey and Guernsey.

His efforts of the British nation in the contests with the Batavian republic, were, as usually in the history of Britain, more successful at sea than on land; and not only

in the northern sea, but beyond the Atlantic. The rich colony of Surinam, in which there is so striking an assemblage of luxuriance of soil, accumulation of riches, and luxury of manners, was added to our colonial possessions.^p This Dutch settlement voluntarily surrendered August 20th, to lord Hugh Seymour, commander in chief of his majesty's land and sea forces in the Leeward and Windward Caribbee Islands, who conducted against it a small squadron of ships, with troops collected from Grenada and St. Lucie. The principal articles of the capitulation were nearly the same that, in an earlier period of the war, had been granted to French islands. The inhabitants were to enjoy full security to their persons; and the free exercise of their religion, with the immediate and entire possession of their private property, whether on shore or afloat. All ships of war, artillery, provisions, and stores in the public magazines and warehouses, as well as the effects of every description, belonging to the public, were to be given up to his Britannic majesty, in the state they then were; regular lists being taken by officers appointed for this purpose by each of the contracting parties. In case the colony of Surinam should remain in the possession of his Britannic majesty, at the conclusion of a general peace, it should enjoy every right and every commercial privilege enjoyed by the British colonies in the West Indies. The troops then in Surinam, as well as the officers belonging to the different corps serving under its present government, should have it in their option to enter into his Britannic majesty's service, on the same footing, with respect to appointments and pay, as the rest of his army provided that they took the oath of fidelity and allegiance to his majesty, which they would be required to take.

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LXIV.

1799.
Capture of
Surinam.

THE situation of affairs on the continent, and the part which the British government had undertaken to act in the confederation against the French republic, caused a short meeting of parliament, at so early a season as the month of September. The object of this extraordinary convocation was to pass a law for extending the voluntary service of the militia, while the regular forces were

Short
meeting of
parliament
in September.

^p See London Gazette, October 15th, 1799.

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LXIV.

1799.

employed on the expedition ; and also to vote some pecuniary supplies on account of the unforeseen expenses. The projected bill respecting the militia, permitted three-fifths of that body to enlist into such corps of regulars as his majesty should appoint ; each volunteer to receive ten guineas, to serve in Europe only, and to continue attached to the corps in which he first entered. If companies (not less than eight privates) should volunteer together, they might continue to form the same corps, and either to be joined into separate battalions ; or if their number did not admit of such an arrangement, they were to be attached to regular regiments. Every officer belonging to such a company of militia should have temporary rank in the regulars equal to that which he had before held ; if the corps was reduced, he should enjoy either half-pay, or permanent military rank, and full pay like any military officer. The bill, being accompanied with numerous regulations concerning the mode of its execution, underwent considerable opposition, as tending to diminish by donative the constitutional and patriotic force of the militia, and to increase the standing army dependent on the crown. The object of Mr. Pitt had uniformly been (his opponents said) to extend the influence and authority of the monarchical branch of the constitution beyond its due and salutary bounds. His system of policy, in order to effect this general end, had been to propose some special or temporary evil to be removed, or good to be attained, from the restriction of popular privileges, and the enlargement of kingly force. The pretext for suspending the habeas corpus was the existence of a conspiracy ; as if a conspiracy, if it had really existed, might not have been discovered and crushed by the constitutional laws of the land. The pretext for extending the laws of treason, and controlling popular assemblies, was the existence of seditious meetings and rebellious designs. The pretended causes had totally ceased, but the laws, so conducive to the real purpose of ministers still continued. The ostensible reason for alluring the militia to become soldiers was, to give effect to our military operations abroad ; the real intention was, at once to increase the standing army and ministerial patronage. These objections, though strongly urged,

at majority of the house, deemed futile ;
 is passed into a law. The supplies granted
 amounted to between six and seven millions,
 million five hundred thousand to be raised
 bills. Bills were also passed for granting
 India merchants, and for supporting com-

CHAP.
 LXIV.

1799.
 Supplies.
 Parliament
 is pro-
 rogued.

These were the chief acts of this short
 lasted only from the twenty-fourth of Sep-
 twelfth of October.

CHAP. LXV.

Ultimate purpose of the French expedition to Egypt—their views concerning India.—Tippoo Sultan recovers a considerable part of his former strength—forms a new confederacy for driving the English from India—his schemes are discovered, and he is admonished by the British government to relinquish his projects—disregards the admonition—British armies from the two coasts take the field—Tippoo retires into Seringapatam—British storm that city—death of Tippoo, and reduction of Mysore—humane and wise policy of the British governor.—Proceedings in Egypt—situation of Bonaparte after the battle of Aboukir—difficulties with which he had to contend—exercise his extraordinary genius—military progress—battle of the pyramids—he addresses the passions and prejudices of the Egyptians—he promises the French will protect them from the Mamalukes—he professes a respect for the Mahomedan faith—plan of Bonaparte to amalgamate the prejudices of the Mahomedans with the pretensions of the French—his undertaking more difficult than the undertaking of Mahomet.—Civil and political administration—his innovations are disregarded by many of the Egyptians—discontents—are quelled—Bonaparte proposes to march into Syria—object of this design—march and progress of the French army—Bonaparte defeats the Syrians—captures Joppa—advances towards Acre—state and importance of that fortress—situation—the French army invests that city—sir Sidney Smith, with a British squadron, arrives at Acre—captures a French flotilla—he perceives the importance of here repressing the progress of the French—his masterly view of the situation of affairs—his first purpose to inspirit the Turks—he diffuses moral energy into their physical strength—the French effect breaches in the wall—assaults on the town—inspired and headed by the English, the Turks repel the attack—grand

employs his sailors as
 example of this heroic
 quished—retreat from
 pt—the Turks send an
 —measures of Bona-
 ypt.

CHAP.
 LXV.

1799.
 Ultimate
 purpose of
 the French
 expedition
 to Egypt;
 concerning
 India.

the French republic and
 confined to Europe and the
 ed in a diagonal line to
 and object of the expedi-
 a fatal blow to the com-
 of England. Among the
 suggested for this end, none
 actual for the execution of
 on of alliances with the native
 Tippoo Sultan had been
 Cornwallis, he had not been
 on, though so severely repres-
 and he still cherished hopes of
 gratification. The humiliating
 been obliged to submit, inflamed
 and revenge, and cooperated with
 annulate hostility against England.
 every circumstance in the politics
 which might be improved into
 the British power in India.
 ans, after the signal overthrow that
 war with the Romans, though com-
 hostages, to pay a tribute, to confine
 much narrower limits than they pos-
 nning of the war, instead of succumbing
 he employed peace in recovering his
 improving his resources. It is customary
 of Hindostan, according to their faculties
 entertain different portions of European
 the purpose of training, animating, and con-
 ur own people in wars with their neighbours;
 ne manner that the different princes and
 enervated after a lapse of time since the
 incursions from the north, by a delicious

CHAP.
LXV.

1799.

Tippoo Sultan recovers a considerable part of his former strength.

Forms a new confederacy for driving the English from India.

climate and exuberant soil, were wont to retain leaders of bands,^q with their followers, from the hardy regions beyond the Alpine mountains. Tippoo, very soon after the pacification of 1792, began to increase his European military establishment. All European adventurers, especially the French, found ready admittance into his service, and as much encouragement as can be given under a despotic form of government. The common enmity of the sultan and the French to the British nation, formed a kind of tacit alliance between those two powers, and a predisposition to define and ratify it by express stipulation, whenever an opportunity should be presented in the vicissitudes of Asia and of Europe. The preponderating power of Great Britain at sea, and her dominion in the east, by the cession of Mysorean territory at once more extended and compacted than ever, suppressed the hostile emotions and intentions that burned within the bosom of Tippoo Sultan, though naturally daring and impetuous, until the unparalleled successes of the tremendous Bonaparte in Italy, and on the southern frontiers of the Austrian dominions, encouraged him to take some steps towards a formal confederation with the French against the English. The expanded genius of Bonaparte, seeking physical and moral instruments wherever they could be found, immediately, in the power and hatred of Tippoo, perceived an engine and springs which might be directed with effect against the commercial and maritime greatness of a nation, in enmity so formidable to the French republic; nor was he slow in setting it in motion. Having corresponded with the French general, Tippoo renewed his hopes and expectations of being able, at last, to effect the object which he and his father had so often attempted in vain. Aware of the disposition of his neighbours in the peninsula, and despairing of procuring the alliance of the Nizam and the Mahrattas, he had carried his plans of alliance to more distant powers, and projected an invasion from the northern kingdoms of Candahar and Cabul, extensive and populous countries situated between the river Indus and the southern extremities of the Caspian sea,

^q Condottieri.

and between the eastern confines of Persia, and great Bucharia or the country of the Usbeck Tartars; including, besides, Lahore, and the celebrated province of Cachemire, and governed by Zemaun Shah, a prince of great abilities. In the mean time, Tippoo, while augmenting his whole army, laboured to increase the army of the Nizam of the Decan, though the ally of the English. A scheme was concerted between the sultan and certain French officers, for gradually raising the European force in the army of that prince above his control, and for bringing over to the side of the Mysoreans, this force, together with as many of the native troops as might be induced, according to the manner of the Asiatics, to join the party prevailing at the moment. The natural indolence of eastern sovereigns, acting in every thing by delegation, and the mode of subsisting the army by allotments of land, and not, by the disbursement of money from a treasury under their own inspection, conspired to facilitate conspiracy; and above 10,000 Europeans, French, and others, were incorporated, and began to take the lead in the army of the Nizam, when this circumstance was discovered to lord Hobart, governor of Madras, by colonel Halcot, an officer commanding the military force in one of the company's establishments, in the north western parts of the presidency of Madras. In the mean time, two events happened, which contributed to disconcert the schemes of the confederacy between Tippoo and the French arms, against the British power in India. The dismissal of the French faction from the Nizam's army, was happily accomplished at Hydrabad, and a new subsidiary treaty ratified with that prince; and a decisive and glorious victory had been obtained by the English over a French fleet on the coast of Egypt.

THE governor general had discovered the machinations of Tippoo, and notified to the sultan that he was acquainted with his intercourse with the French nation. He mentioned the success of the British fleet against the French in Egypt, the revival of our defensive alliance with the Nizam, and the destruction of the French influence in the Decan: he farther intimated the military preparations of

His schemes are discovered, and he is admonished by the British government to relinquish his projects.

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LXV.1799.
Disregards
the admo-
nition.British ar-
mies from
the two
coasts take
the field.

the British on both coasts, and he admonished him of the danger which would accrue from proceeding in his hostile schemes. Tippoo professed to negotiate, but was really persevering in warlike preparations. The governor general made repeated efforts to preserve peace, but finding his endeavours unavailing, determined to commence the war as effectually as possible.^s Lord Mornington ordered two armies from the coasts of Malabar and Coromandel, commanded respectively by generals Stewart and Harris, to meet in Mysore. The Nizam's army took the field, and made the proper dispositions for forming a junction with that of Madras: this army consisted of six thousand native forces nearly an equal number of the company's troops, subsidized by his highness, and a great body of cavalry; it then joined that of Madras under major general Harris, about twenty-four thousand strong, which entered the Mysore country on the 5th of May, with orders to proceed immediately to Seringapatam. In the mean time, the Malabar army equipped and put in motion with equal promptitude and judgment under general Stewart, on the 1st of February, marched from Cannanore, and ascended the Ghauts on the 25th: his army was divided into four different corps, and these moved successively into such a situation as might enable him to form the earliest possible junction with the principal army: with the same view he occupied a post as Seedaseer, near to which there is a high hill that commands a view of the Mysore, almost to the environs of Seringapatam;^t hence our troops beheld the enemy's encampment, and perceived that they were in motion; but their movements were so well concealed (March 5th) by the woodiness of the country, and the haziness of the atmosphere, that it was impossible to ascertain their object; nor was it discovered until they had penetrated a considerable way into the jungles, and commenced an attack upon our lines, which happened between the hours of nine and ten on the 7th. The enemy pierced through the jungles with such secrecy and expedition, that they attacked our front and rear almost at the same instant. This despatch prevented

^s Despatches of lord Mornington to the company.^t Annual Register, 1799.

than three of the Bombay corps being engaged; as
 fourth, which was posted two miles and a half in the
 was unable to form a junction, from the enemy hav-
 posted themselves between them and Seedaseer: the
 communication was completely obstructed by a column
 which, according to the reports of prisoners, consisted of
 upwards of five thousand men, under the command of
 Ser Jung. The brigade was on every side completely
 surrounded, and had to contend against a vast disparity of
 numbers. General Stewart, informed of the danger of
 the corps, marched to their assistance with the flank com-
 pany of his majesty's 75th regiment, and the whole of
 the 7th. Attacking the enemy, he, after an obstinate re-
 sistance, gained a victory, which enabled him to effect a
 junction with the main army. Tippoo now took refuge
 in the metropolis, which the British troops advanced to
 seize. Their batteries being erected, the artillery began
 to fire, and had, on the evening of the 3d of May, so
 nearly destroyed the walls against which they were direct-
 ed, that the arrangement was made for assaulting the place
 the next day, when the breach was reported practicable. The
 batteries which were intended to be employed, were station-
 ed in the trenches early on the morning of the 4th, that no
 extraordinary movement might lead the enemy to expect
 an assault, which general Harris determined should be
 made in the heat of the day, as the time best calculated to
 insure success, for their troops would then be least pre-
 pared for making opposition. At one o'clock, the troops
 moved from the trenches, crossed the rocky bed of the
 river, under an extreme heavy fire, passed the glacis
 ditch, and ascended the breaches in the *fausse braye*
 rampart of the fort; surmounted in the most gallant
 manner every obstacle in their way, and were completely
 successful. Tippoo defended himself to the last with a
 courage and ability worthy of his former fame: he made
 his last stand at post after post, till at last driven to his palace,
 he lay among crowds of his brave defenders. His body
 was found under a heap of slain, and interred with all the

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LXV.

1799.

Tippoo re-
tires into
Seragapa-
tam.British ar-
my storm
that city.Death of
Tippoo,
and reduc-
tion of My-
sore.

Annual Register, 1799, chap. iv.

Letter of general Harris in the London Gazette extraordinary, Sept.

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LXV.

1799.

Human
and wise
policy of
the British
govern-
ment.

Proceed-
ings in
Egypt.

Situation
of Bona-
parte after
the battle
of Aboukir.
Difficulties
with which
he had to
contend,

exercises
his extraor-
dinary abi-
lities.

honours due to his rank in the mausoleum of his father. Thus fell that bold, enterprising, and able barbarian, and with him the house of Hyder, which, though low in its origin, was ennobled by its exploits, splendid in its progress, and great even in its fall: it is eminently distinguished from all the families or dynasties that have ever appeared in such quick succession in Hindostan, by a more extensive cultivation and application of European arts and arms, than had been known before in the dominions of any native power of Asia. On the reduction of Seringapatam, and the excision of Tippoo, lord Mornington resolved to make such arrangements as might establish the British influence and authority in the subdued country. Commissioners, appointed on the part of the company, and also in behalf of the Nizam, on the 24th of June, promulgated a scheme of partition and settlement: the capital, with its fortress, and the island in which it is situated, with some extensive districts, including Mangalore and a very considerable extent of seacoast, were allotted to the English; a large portion was assigned to the Nizam; and a separate territory was subjected to the sway of the Mi-hissour, Maha Rajah Kishennai Wuddiar, a descendant of the ancient rajahs of Mysore, whose throne had been seized by Hyder Ally. The sons of Tippoo were taken into the protection of the English.

THE ability of Bonaparte, powerful as it was, could not effect every object through means remote from his own energy; yet where he was placed himself, he displayed an astonishing combination of talents. We left this extraordinary personage landed in Egypt, and, by the terrible discomfiture of his fleet, apparently cut off from all intercourse with his country. It was not with mamalukes and Arabs alone that the French general had to contend, but with the climate, endemial distempers, and the usual perfidy of barbarians, united with the malignity of a proud and illiberal superstition. But these circumstances served only to exercise the elasticity of genius and heroism tried by difficulty and danger. Bonaparte examined into the resources, parties, sects, opinions, sentiments, and dispositions of the people in the country wherein he was arrived. The chief military force in Egypt consisted of the mama-

lukes : besides these, there were in Egypt a great number of Arabs, Jews, Greeks, and Copts, (who were christians, and the descendants of the ancient Egyptians). His own force now consisted of about forty thousand soldiers, with a considerable number of transports, and some of the sailors. His first object was to manifest his force, to procure a firm footing in the country ; and afterwards, to extend his power as much as possible by his moral artillery.⁷ He took Alexandria by storm,² and soon after received the submission of Rosetta and Damietta. To conciliate the good will of the people, he published a declaration purporting, that the French were the friends and allies of the grand seignor ; that they were come to chastise the beys, and would pay every respect to the Turkish laws and religion ; provide and convey regularly the due tribute to the Sublime Porte. Having secured his acquisitions on the coast, he marched towards Cairo, defended by Murad bey, a distinguished chief of the mamalukes, who were in great force, to the number, it has been said, of twenty thousand, but wholly composed of cavalry. The mamalukes made several brave but ineffectual charges on the French, who had only infantry. At Cairo, Murad bey assembled all his forces, and advanced into that vast plain where stand the pyramids. He was at the head of a numerous army, commanded under him by three inferior beys, all men of determined bravery, but used, like their soldiers, to fight only on horseback : they were all mounted on the finest horses, provided with the most splendid arms, and, along with these, rich purses of gold ; it being the custom of the mamalukes to carry along with them what they deem most valuable. Being excellent horsemen, well acquainted with the defiles and contour of the country, and of intrepid courage and resolution, though Barbarians, they were no contemptible enemies. They attacked the French with much courage and impetuosity, endeavouring to surround them, or at least to make an impression upon their flanks and rear ; but were every where repulsed with such a slaughter that they were com-

Military
progress.

Battle of
the pyra-
mids.

⁷ y Annual Register, 1798, chap. x. ; and 1799, chap. v.

² To the vanquisher of the Austrian host, this was an inconsiderable achievement. See sir Robert Wilson, p. 17.

CHAP.
LXV.

1799.
He addresses the
passions
and prejudices of the
Egyptians.

He promises the
French will protect them
from the Mamelukes.

pelled to fly on all sides, leaving two thousand killed or wounded on the field: an intrenchment, which they threw up to protect their camp, was carried, together with fifty pieces of cannon that defended it, and all their baggage: many of the beys were killed or wounded. Cairo, evacuated in the night, was taken possession of by the French the next morning.^a Thus established, Bonaparte prepared his conciliatory projects; he first considered the most generally prevalent affections of the people with whom he had now to deal. The predominant passions of the inhabitants of Egypt were religious bigotry and superstition, and a jealousy and indignation against any degree of familiarity with their women. Bonaparte, therefore, deemed it necessary to instruct and caution his army on these two important and delicate subjects: he explained to them the principle articles of the Mahomedan creed; exhorted them to show the same respect to its ceremonials as to those of the popish faith; and inculcated universal toleration according to the example of the Roman legions. He farther enjoined abstinence from pillage, as enriching only a few, but dishonouring the whole army. Having thus cautioned his soldiers, he addressed himself to the prejudices and sufferings of the Egyptian people: they had long languished under the tyranny of the beys; Frenchmen would vindicate their natural rights, protect their property, and promote their religion. All men (he said) are equal in the eyes of God; UNDERSTANDING, INGENUITY, and SCIENCE, alone make a difference between them; and what WISDOM, what talents, what virtues, distinguish the mamalukes, that they should have exclusively all that renders life sweet and pleasant? Is there a beautiful woman? she belongs to the mamalukes. Is there a handsome slave, a fine horse, a fine house? they belong to the mamalukes. All the Egyptians are entitled to the possession of all places: the wisest, most enlightened, and most virtuous, will govern, and the people will be happy. You had once great cities, large canals, much trade; who has destroyed them but the avarice, in-

^a See Otridge's Annual Register for 1798, p. 150

justice, and tyranny of the mamalukes. Thus persuading what may be called the Egyptian democracy, that, through France, they would be emancipated from aristocratical tyranny, and the ancient splendor and glory of Egypt restored; he stimulated love of independence, patriotism, and pride, to cooperate with his efforts. The astonishing versatility of this extraordinary man applied itself to their religious prejudices, not only by protection, but by pretending to coincidence of opinion: he insinuated that he was actually and expressly commissioned by the prophet to resist, repel, and overthrow the tyranny of the beys, to reform certain errors and abuses, and to promote justice, mercy, and piety, the great ends of the Mahomedan religion. He also adopted the figurative and proverbial language of eastern countries. By these means he extended his influence, not only through Egypt, but through Arabia, Syria, and more northern parts of Asiatic Turkey. The task undertaken by Bonaparte, to amalgamate the prejudices of the Mahomedans with the pretensions of the French, was difficult almost beyond example, and even more arduous than the project of Mahomet: the plan pursued by Mahomet was great, but simple; the spirit of it was terror; the instruments, or means of execution, were great and simple also—God, war, and fate. It was a more complicated and a nicer undertaking to mingle terror with reasoning, the rights of man with the privileges or rather prerogatives of mussulmen, and the submission of the followers, to strangers, at best only dubious friends to the prophet. To accomplish that design, Bonaparte made presents to Turks, Copts, Greeks, and Arabs. He patronized strict justice between man and man; he gave free passage and protection to the pilgrims going to and from Mecca; and encouraged all kinds of commerce. He found a number of predial slaves, whom he encouraged to industry, by giving them lands to be cultivated on their own account. He gave equal right to inheritance to all the children of the same parents. He improved the condition of women, by giving them a certain portion of the goods of their husbands at their decease, and the right of disposing of such property. He encouraged marriage between his soldiers and the natives, and endeavoured to restrain poly-

He professes a respect for the Mahomedan faith. Plan of Bonaparte to amalgamate the prejudices of the Mahomedans with the pretensions of the French.

His undertaking more difficult than the undertaking of Mahomet.

Civil and political administration.

CHAP.
XXV.

1799.

His innovations are
disapproved by many of
the Egyptians.

Discon-
tents.

Bonaparte
proposes to
march into
Syria.
Object of
his design.

gamy. He established schools for the instruction of the young French, Copts, and Arabs, in French, Arabic, geography, and mathematics. He was a friend to shows, festivals, games, and other diversions; in all which he wished the French and the natives to mingle together; and he submitted as a problem to the institute by what musical instruments and airs the minds of these last might be the more readily and effectually impressed, through the power of music: by his orders, issued about the middle of September, a general assembly was to be held on or before the 18th of October, of all the notables throughout the fourteen provinces into which Egypt is divided. Deputations from each of these provinces were to form a general council, or divan for the government of the nation, at the capital Grand Cairo. These innovations however were at length discovered to be contrary to the koran, and caused several insurrections; but they were speedily quelled; and the French were masters of all Lower, and a great part of Upper Egypt.^b The Turks had now entered into an alliance offensive and defensive with Russia, and were the declared enemies of France. Informed of the hostile intention of the Ottomans, Bonaparte concluded that a combined operation would take place against the French, in an expedition from Syria, and an attack by sea. Ghez- zar Oglou, the bashaw of St. John d'Acre, had given a kind reception to Ibrahim bey, with about a thousand mamalukes, after he had been driven out of Egypt into Syria: he himself had assembled a very considerable force. The bashaw of Damascus was also in motion; and multitudes of Arabs appeared ready to join the enemies of the French, if likely to prevail. The collection of an army in Egypt, or on its confines, Bonaparte apprehended, would revive the courage of the inhabitants, and overturn an authority not yet confirmed by the lapse of time, the abatement of prejudice, or the change of habit: he therefore determined to anticipate the expected attack, and made dispositions for marching into Syria; but, before he began hostilities, he professed to seek satisfaction first by conciliatory methods. He despatched an envoy with a letter

^b See Denon, vol. ii.

to Ghezzar, assuring him that the French nation was desirous to live at peace, and preserve friendship with the grand seignor; but he insisted that Ghezzar should dismiss Ibrahim with his mamalukes. Ghezzar, who, in his military preparations, had acted by the orders of the Porte, made no answer to this letter from Bonaparte, but sent back the officer who carried it, and put the French at Acre into irons.^c Bonaparte therefore proceeded in his preparations, including various political precautions. The force of the army destined for this expedition amounted to above twelve thousand men.^d The obstacles to be encountered in the passage of the desert did not admit of heavy artillery being transported by land; the ordnance that had been employed in the siege of Alexandria was put on board three frigates, which were to cruise off Jaffa, and to maintain a communication with the army. Camels and mules were provided with extraordinary expedition at Cairo, for carrying the light artillery, ammunition, and provisions, of which, the most bulky, as well as the most necessary article, was water. The army was parted into four divisions, under generals Kleber, Regnier, Bon, and Lannes; the cavalry was commanded by general Murat, the artillery by general Dornmartin, and the engineers by general Chafferell. A junction was formed, February 4th, 1799, between the division of Kleber and the advanced guard of Regnier, under the command of general Grange, at Cathick; from whence they proceeded to Larissa, otherwise called El Arisch, a village pleasantly situated on the river Peneus, and the seat of a Greek archbishop, as well as of mosques for the votaries of the Mahomedan religion. Bonaparte ordered one of the towers of the castle to be cannonaded, and the breach being opened, he summoned the place to surrender: the garrison was composed of Arnauts and Maugrabins, all rude barbarians, without leaders, and uninformed in any of the principles of war that are acknowledged by civilized nations: their answer was, that they were willing to come out with their arms and bag-

CHAP.
XLV.

1799.

March and
progress of
the French
army.

Bonaparte
defeats the
Syrians at
El Arisch.

^c See Annual Register for 1799, p. 21. ^d Division of Kleber 2,349, division of Bon 2,449, division of Lannes 2,924, division of Regnier 2,160; cavalry 800, engineers 340, artillery 1,385, guides for the infantry and cavalry 400, dronedaries 88. See Berthier's Narrative,

The first object of Bonaparte's mission to Jaffa was to secure the submission of the city to the French. He found the city in a state of confusion, the Turkish forces being in a state of disorganization. He immediately ordered the city to be fortified, and the French flag to be hoisted. He then ordered the city to be divided into quarters, and the Turkish forces to be confined to the quarters assigned to them. He also ordered the city to be supplied with food and other necessities, and the French flag to be hoisted on the city walls. He then ordered the city to be divided into quarters, and the Turkish forces to be confined to the quarters assigned to them. He also ordered the city to be supplied with food and other necessities, and the French flag to be hoisted on the city walls.

Having formed a divan, consisting of the most distinguished Turks in the place, Bonaparte took the necessary measures for restoring it to a state of defence, and also established an hospital. Jaffa was to the army a place of the highest importance, as it became the repository of every thing that was sent to them from Alexandria and Damietta. From Jaffa, Bonaparte again wrote to Ghezzar a letter, dated the 9th of March:

wherein he avowed his friendly intentions towards the Turks and Syrians; but announced his determination to march against Acre, unless the bashaw should become disposed for peace. To this menace Ghezzar returned the following verbal answer: "I have not written to you, because I am resolved to hold no communication with you: you may march against Acre when you please: I shall be prepared for you, and will bury myself in the ruins of the place, rather than let it fall into your hands." On receiving this answer, Bonaparte proceeded towards Acre.

Advances
towards
Acre.

State and
importance
of that
fortress.

THE city of Acre, called St. Jean d'Acre, because it was the residence of the knights of Jerusalem, which they defended against the Saracens, is situated in the southern extremity of the Phœnician coast, on the confines of Palestine. After being wrested from the christians by the Turks and Arabs, it had been recovered by the crusaders; and afterwards captured by Saladin: it was taken a second time by the romantic valour of Richard I. and given to the knights of St. John, who held it about one hundred years with great bravery: but a dispute concerning the possession of it, among the christians themselves, gave an opportunity to Sultan Melech Seraf, with an army of one hundred and fifty thousand men, to reduce it again under the Ottoman yoke; and it has since continued dependent on the Turks.^f

Situation.

ACRE is encompassed on the north and east by a spacious and fertile plain; on the west by the Mediterranean, and on the south by a large bay, which extends from the city to mount Carmel. So frequently the object of contention, it was by its successive possessors more strongly fortified than cities have generally been under those desultory and barbarous warriors. On the 17th of March, late in the evening, the French army arrived at the mouth of the little river of Acre, which is at the distance of about 1500 fathoms from the fortress: the river runs through a very

^f In the fifteenth century, the Druses, descendants from the christian crusaders, wrested Acre from the Turks; and in one age Faccardanio, an able and eminent chief, becoming connected with the Tuscan princes of Medici, introduced various improvements in the arts and literature; but, after his death, Acre again fell into the hands of the Turks, and was overwhelmed like their other dominions, by Turkish barbarism.

CHAP.
LXV.

1799.

The
French
army
invests the
city.

marshy ground. Bonaparte did not think it advisable to attempt so perilous a passage during the night, and the more so as the enemy had pushed forward riflemen in infantry and cavalry to the opposite side of the river. The night was employed in constructing a bridge; on the 18th, at break of day, the whole army passed over.^g Bonaparte that day ascended an eminence that commands a view of St. Jean d'Acre, at the distance of about a mile: he ordered his troops to attack the Syrians, drawn up in gardens that environed the town, and compelled them to retire within the fortress: the republican army was encamped upon an insulated eminence that runs near to, and parallel with the sea, and which extends as far as cape Blanc, about a league and a half to the northward, commanding to the east a plain about a league and three quarters in length, terminated by the mountains that lie between Acre and Jordan. The French had seized magazines at Caiffa and adjacent villages, which were much wanted for the sustenance of the army. Having employed the 19th in reconnoitring the fortress, Bonaparte resolved to attack the front of the salient angle, at the eastward of the town: no intelligence had yet arrived of the siege artillery that was sent by sea. On the 20th, the trenches were opened at about 150 fathoms from the fortress; and advantage was taken of the garden, and ditches of the old town, and of an aqueduct that unites with the glacis of the town: posts were stationed to blockade the place, so as to keep the Syrians within their walls, and to repulse them with advantage and effect, in case they should attempt a sortie. In defending the fortress, Ghezzar was to be supported by an army which was to march from Damascus; and the combined operation of these forces from Syria, was to be favoured by a diversion, towards the mouth of the Nile, by Mourad bey, who, though compelled to retreat before the French, was yet in considerable strength, and would be joined by bodies of Arabs.

To direct and assist the execution of this plan, sir Sidney Smith hastened to Acre. This distinguished officer had left Portsmouth the preceding autumn, and was

^g See Berthier's Narrative.

now commander of the British naval force in the Archipelago, consisting of the *Tigre* of 80 guns, the *Theseus* of 74 guns, and the *Alliance* of 20 guns. Informed of the first movements of Bonaparte, he endeavoured to detain him by bombarding Alexandria, but found that without troops he could do the enemy no effectual injury in that city. Finding that Bonaparte had marched to Syria, he hastened to Acre, to concert with the Turkish governor the plan of defence: he arrived two days before the French army. On the 16th, an achievement of the commodore greatly facilitated the progress of defensive preparations; he chased and captured off the cape of Carmel, the whole French flotilla, under the command of Eydoun, chief of division, laden with heavy cannon, ammunition, platforms, and other articles necessary for Bonaparte's army to undertake the siege. This artillery, consisting of forty-four pieces, was immediately mounted on the ramparts of Acre, against the line and batteries of the enemy, as well as on the gun vessels.

SIR SIDNEY SMITH, a man of genius as well as military and naval skill, clearly and fully comprehended the exact situation in which he was placed, and the characters on which he was to act. The adherence of the Asiatics, either to one side or the other, would, he saw, depend on events: if Bonaparte after such signal successes in Egypt, were to continue in his course of advancing conquest, the Asiatics, deeming him invincible, would desist from farther opposition, and many of them would even join the French invaders, in the hopes of plunder. If, on the other hand, he were repelled, the Asiatics would unite with their enraged mahomedan brethren in harassing and annoying the subduer of mussulmen. The physical force of the Syrians, and their auxiliaries from Egypt and Arabia, was very considerable; but their intellectual and moral energies were by no means equal to the French. Both France and Britain knew well, from the experience of India, that mahomedan valour, directed, methodized, and fortified by christian genius and skill, formed very efficacious troops. Smith was fully convinced that the soldiers of western Asia were naturally as brave as those of eastern; and considered how their cou-

CHAP.

LXV.

1799.

Sir Sidney Smith with a British squadron arrives at Acre.

Captures a French flotilla.

He perceives the importance of here repressing the progress of the French.

His masterly view of the situation of affairs.

CHAP.
LXV.

1799.

His first
purpose to
inspire the
Turks.He diffuses
moral
energy into
their phy-
sical
strength.

rage and prowess could be most speedily animated and directed to effectual action. The time did not admit of that regular and systematic discipline which assimilates seapoys to British soldiers; it was necessary not only to stimulate exertion, but to prompt such speedy effort as would immediately influence Asiatic opinion: the first and grand object of Smith's comprehensive mind, was to infuse into the strength and courage of the Turkish soldiers, the energies of a British soul; by a kind of mental alchemy to transmute gross metal into the purest and most valuable. This was the great principle of sir Sidney Smith's policy; he sought to give unity of wish and pursuit to very great diversity of sentiment, prejudice, and views; to make the mamalukes of Egypt, the Turks of Syria, the bedouins of Arabia, and the christians of Palestine, unite as instruments in the hands of Englishmen, for opposing the French. In moral artillery, so successfully as we have seen prepared and employed by the French commander, the British officer also showed himself supremely conversant. He found that different as the various tribes were from one another, and immensely different as they all were from Englishmen, there were some principles which they had in common. They all regarded religion, their property, and their independence. Sir Sidney Smith very ably and eloquently called on believers to unite against infidels, on all who valued their own effects, their own country, families, and the government which was most consonant with their habits and sentiments, to combine against systematic plunderers, invaders, and revolutionizers. These representations being strongly urged in all the cities and provinces of the neighbourhood, made a very powerful impression, and great bodies of natives were excited to approach to Acre. But Bonaparte so posted his troops as to render the arrival of succours by land very difficult. The English commander therefore while by his political negotiations, stirring up armies of Asiatics against the French, was obliged to form his military plans from the garrison that was already at Acre: the cooperation of the Asiatics without would depend upon the effects of the efforts within.

BONAPARTE pressed the siege with his usual vigour and skill. The figure of Acre is rectangular, having the sea on the west and south sides. Though Bonaparte had approached from the south by mount Carmel, which is washed by the bay, he had carried on the siege on the north and east sides, both to intercept the Syrian army from the country, and to be as much as possible out of the reach of the British ships. On the 3d of April having effected a breach in the wall on the northeast part of the town, he attempted to take it by assault, but was vigorously repulsed with very great loss. The British commander made dispositions for a sortie, to be executed under the orders of colonel Douglas, and the direction of colonel Philipeaux. On the 7th of April it was proposed that the British marines and seamen should force their way into a mine which the French were forming towards a tower that protected the northeast angle of the wall; while the Turks should attack the enemy's trenches on the right and left. The British seamen succeeded in destroying all that part of the enemy's preparations; and great numbers of the French were slain. But a much more important advantage was attained than even the destruction of the work; the example of the British forces inspired the Turks to the most determined and resolute efforts: they were filled with admiration of their valiant defenders, and wished to vie with them in prowess and skill. Bonaparte, meanwhile, was successfully engaged in repelling the approaches of the Syrian army, and his generals Kleber and Murat gained repeated victories in Syria; while he himself continued before Acre. During the month of April, various sorties were made, in which the garrison was generally successful. In the beginning of May, a fleet of transports appeared in the road of Acre, bringing a strong reinforcement of troops, commanded by Hassan bey. Bonaparte determined on a vigorous assault, before those troops should be disembarked. The constant fire of the besiegers was suddenly increased tenfold, and they had raised epaulements which shielded them from the fire of the British ships. Several batteries, managed by sailors, were planted on shore, which, added to the Turkish musketry, did great execution. Still how-

CHAP.
LXV.

1799.

The French effect breaches in the wall. Assaults on the town.

Inspired and headed by the English, the Turks repel the attack.

Grand assault by the French.

CHAP.
XXV.

1799

Smith employs his
sailors as
soldiers.Enthusiasm
efforts and
example of
this heroic
band.

ever, the enemy gained ground, and made a lodgment in the second story of the northeast tower. The upper part being entirely battered down, and the ruins in the ditch forming the ascent by which they mounted : daylight showed the French standard on the outer angle of the town. The fire of the besieged was much slackened in comparison to that of the besiegers, and the British flanking fire was become of less effect, the enemy having covered themselves in this lodgment and the approach to it by two traverses across the ditch. Hassan bey's troops were in the boats, though as yet but half way to shore. This was a most critical point of the contest, and an effort was necessary to preserve the place for a short time till their arrival. Here the genius of sir Sidney Smith, in the midst of danger and alarm, retaining the completest self possession and a thorough command of all his faculties, devised one of those happy movements which have frequently decided the fate of battles, and even of nations : he landed his crew at the mole, and, arming them with pikes, led them to the breach, where the Turks, having made a very brave resistance, were fast becoming feeble and hopeless, and many of them, in despair, were leaving the conflict; when the sight of such a reinforcement reanimated their valour, and inspirited the most astonishing efforts. The grateful acclamations of the Asiatics, men, women, and children, went feelingly home to the hearts of our generous tars,^h and invigorated their gladdened coadjutors. With the heroic sailors, the fugitive Asiatics returned to the breach, which was defended by a few brave Turks, whose most destructive missile weapons were heavy stones; these, striking the assailants on the head, overthrew the foremost down the slope, and impeded the progress of the rest. A succession, however, ascended to the assault, the heaps of ruins between the two parties serving as a breastwork for both. The muzzles of their muskets touched one another, and the spear heads of the standards were locked together. Ghezzar, hearing that the English were on the breach, quitted his station, where, according to the ancient Turkish custom, he was sitting to reward such as should

^h See letters of sir Sidney, *London Gazette*, September 10th, 1799.

bring him the heads of the enemy, and distributing musket cartridges with his own hand. The energetic old man, coming behind, forcibly pulled them down, saying, if any harm happened to his English friends, all was lost.ⁱ This amicable contest, as to who should defend the breach, occasioned a rush of Turks to the spot, and thus time was gained for the arrival of the first body of Hassan's troops. It was necessary to combat the bashaw's repugnance to the admission of any troops but his Albanians into the garden of his seraglio, become a very important post, as occupying the terre-plein of the rampart. There were not above two hundred of the original thousand Albanians left alive. The eloquence of sir Sidney overruled the bashaw's objections : a regiment, called the Chifflic, was introduced, consisting of a thousand men, armed with bayonets, and disciplined after the European method, under sultan Selim's own eye ; and placed, by his orders, under sir Sidney's immediate command. The garrison, animated by the appearance of such a reinforcement, was now all on foot, and there being consequently enough to defend the breach, sir Sidney proposed to the bashaw to get rid of the objects of his jealousy, by opening his gates to let them make a sally, and then to take the assailants in flank. Ghezzar readily complied : the gates were opened, and the Turks rushed out ; but were repulsed with loss. The French now renewed the attack, and in a massive column advanced to the breach. Ghezzar proposed not to defend the opening this time ; but to suffer a certain number of them to enter, and close with them before they were joined by the rest. The French column thus mounted the breach unmolested, and descended from the rampart into the bashaw's garden, where, in a very few minutes, the bravest and most advanced among them lay headless corpses ; the sabre, with the addition of a dagger in the other hand, proving more than a match for the bayonet.* Retaining the spirit which the energetic heroism of the British seamen had inspired, the Turks charged the republicans with so impetuous and persevering vigour, as

CHAP.
LXV.

1799.

The
French are
entirely
vanquished.

ⁱ See letters of sir Sidney, London Gazette, September 10th, 1799.

^k See sir Sidney Smith's letter of May 9th, in the Gazette of September 10th, 1799.

CHAP.
LXV.

1799.

finally to accomplish sir Sidney's design, by a complete repulse of the enemy. During this conflict, multitudes of spectators covered the surrounding hills, ready, as usual with those unprincipled hordes, to join the conqueror; and, through the efforts of Smith, taught that the French invader was not irresistible, were the more disposed to join the opposite party. Continuing his purpose of availing himself of the turns of opinion with great skill and genius, the British commander sent circular letters to the native tribes, recalling them to a sense of their duty and interest, and engaging them to cut off supplies from the French camp. The repulse of the 8th of May, so glorious in effort, proved more speedily decisive in event than even its illustrious author himself expected.¹ From this time, Bonaparte appears to have been convinced of the impolicy of farther perseverance against Acre, and the impracticability of farther advances into the Turkish empire. As he himself had warred partly by moral artillery, he perceived he had met with an antagonist who applied himself to the same species of engine: he saw, that without the cooperation of Asiatic opinion and assistance, it would be impossible for him, with his reduced army to proceed; and he saw that British heroism and genius, followed by success, had given an effectual turn to the natives. Nor was enmity to him, he well knew, confined to Turkish Asia, disaffection had been studiously promoted by the beys in Egypt, which the reports of his disappointment would encourage to manifest itself. His own presence only could effectually repress attempts so extremely probable. Persistence in his present undertaking was wasteful and ruinous. Farther advance, from the impulse communicated by sir Sidney Smith, was totally impracticable. To retreat alone remained: and on this movement Bonaparte resolved. May 20th, he began his departure towards Egypt. His battering train of artillery, consisting of twenty-three pieces fell into the hands of the English; the lighter artillery, which had been brought through the

Retreat
from Acre.Bonaparte
returns to
Egypt.

¹ In the close of this letter of May 9th, sir Sidney was still doubtful of the immediate issue of the contest; though he was convinced it had so much weakened the republican army, that it would ultimately prevent the progress of their invasion. See last paragraph of his letter.

desert, was sent back by sea ; but captured by sir Sidney Smith. The British officers, whom sir Sidney mentioned as, after Philipeaux and Douglas, the most eminently distinguished, were, major Oldfield, killed in one of the first sorties ; captain Wilmot, and captain Miller, of the navy, of whom the former lost his life ; lieutenants Wright, Brodie, and Canes ; and Summers, the midshipman ; and indeed all our force, naval and marine, are included in the high praises of their brave and meritorious commander. Thus terminated the siege of Acre, after having lasted sixty-four days. The garrison, consisting originally of undisciplined troops, and possessing scarcely any artillery, must have soon fallen before the republican host, if the brave bands of England, with a Douglas and a Smith, had not intervened. But it was not merely the physical force, not exceeding fifteen hundred men, that could combat the Gallic multitudes of victorious veterans, so commanded ; it was the energy which their example infused into the Asiatic defenders, that foiled the enemy. By this successful defence of Acre, it is morally certain that the able and heroic Smith saved the rich provinces and cities of Asiatic, and even European Turkey, from becoming a prey to the French republic ; swelling the possessions of our enemy, already so enormous, with the addition of territory and its spoils, that would have afforded the means of farther aggrandizement and spoliation, dangerous to every other country. As sir Sidney Smith first showed that even BONAPARTE was not invincible by ENGLISHMEN, he first effectually repressed Gallic schemes of boundless ambition, which invaded, revolutionized, and despoiled unoffending nations. Such must impartial history transmit to posterity, sir Sidney Smith, the defender of Acre, and the repeller of Bonaparte.

BONAPARTE, in the end of June after being much harassed by the Asiatics in his retreat, arrived at Cairo. The successes of the Turks, in defensive operations, encouraged them to attempt a plan of offence for the recovery of Egypt ; and a considerable Turkish army landed at Aboukir. Bonaparte being at Cairo, informed of the arrival of this armament, after making proper disposi-

The
Turks
send an
army to
Aboukir,
but are de-
feated.

Measures
of Bona-
parte for
the im-
prove-
ment of
Egypt.

he defence and peace of Upper Egypt and Cai-
preserving a communication with both, march-
to Alexandria ; thence he proceeded to Aboukir,
where the Turks were posted. On the 25th of July a
battle was fought, in which, as the French veterans had
only to contend with undisciplined Ottomans, they gained
a signal victory. The Turks immediately left Egypt,
and Bonaparte returned to civil arrangements. Having
repelled this invasion and also crushed several attempts
of the mamalukes, he, during the rest of his stay, devo-
ted his attention to the internal state of the country, na-
tural, civil, and political ; and to devising improvements.
He was ardently desirous to promote the interests of lite-
rature and science, and to bring every kind of intellectual
ability into efficient action. With this view the learned
men, whom he took with him to Egypt, were employed in
determining latitudes ; examining the state, and taking
the surveys of canals and lakes ; in repairing canals ;^m in
examining and describing plants and animals, in minera-
logical researches ; and what is nearly connected with
these, chymical experiments ; in making observations,
geological, nosological, and meteorological ; in drawing
plans of towns, edifices, and various monuments of anti-
quity ; in improving agriculture ; in erecting a chymical
laboratory, founderies, windmills, and other useful works.
Bonaparte formed a library, and an institution for pro-
moting art, science, and philosophy. He also paid par-
ticular attention to navigation and commerce. He took
a very detailed survey of the towns, and adjacent coasts,
and ordered the construction of certain works for the
defence of this important post. For the encouragement
of commerce he lowered the duties paid to the bashaws
and mamalukes ; and for carriage of goods, established
regular caravans from Suez to Cairo and Balbeis. He
discovered the remains of the canal of Suez, and taking
a geometrical survey of its course, ascertained the exist-
ence of one of the greatest and most useful works in the
world. Indeed few generals, recorded in ancient or mo-

^m See Denon, *passim*.

derm times, surpassed Bonaparte, in uniting with the progress of arms the researches of investigation, the deductions of science with their practical applications to the purposes of life. Such were the pursuits of this conqueror, when the affairs of France recalled him from the banks of the Nile to the banks of the Seine.

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LXV.

1799.

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Internal affairs of France—the directory becomes unpopular—the revival of the system of terror threatened—Bonaparte unexpectedly arrives from Egypt—character and views of the abbe Sieyes—popularity of Bonaparte—he is adored by the army—plan of a new constitution—Bonaparte is invested with the command of the army—the legislative bodies translated to St. Cloud—Bonaparte's address to the army—he enters the council of elders—and is favourably received—opposed in the council of five hundred—but is seconded by grenadiers with bayonets—the partisans of Bonaparte pray for his assistance, to enable them to deliberate peaceably—the grenadier guards remove the refractory members—dissolution of the legislature—new constitution—Bonaparte is chosen chief consul—offers peace to his Britannic majesty.—Britain—gloomy prospect—people again wish for peace—meeting of parliament—proposals of the consul to our king—answer rejecting his proposals—submitted to parliament—arguments of ministers, insincerity and instability of Bonaparte—of opposition, that Bonaparte is disposed and competent to make peace—the rejection of the overtures is approved by great majorities.—German subsidies—motion for an inquiry into the expedition to Holland—rejected by a great majority—progress of the intended union with Ireland—proposed articles—arguments for and against—the plan of union, and time of commencement are finally fixed by both parliaments—dearness of provisions—corn and bread bill—bill of lord Auckland concerning the marriage of divorced persons—the duke of Clarence's view of the subject—arguments for and against—is rejected—warmly engages the public attention—attempt at the theatre to assassinate our sovereign—is found to arise from lunacy—anxious alarm of the public—amendment of the insanity bill—parliament rises.

THE war in Italy under Bonaparte, had not only fed and supported itself, but afforded a surplusage of finance to the treasury of Paris. Scarcely had that renowned chief embarked on board the French squadron at Toulon, when a remissness was visible in the military affairs of France. Neither was the genius of the directory, Barras alone excepted, suited to war ; nor did the system on which they aimed at the establishment of their own power and fortune, admit of that pure, faithful, and prompt distribution of the resources of the nation, which was necessary to a vigorous exertion in so many scenes on such an extended theatre. A majority of them, Reubel, Lepaux, and Merlin, bred lawyers, were jealous of military renown and influence ; and wished not for any greater number of troops than might be necessary barely to secure the frontier, and, above all, their own despotism in the internal affairs of the republic. The possession of authority, and the new avenues for governing by corruption, diminished in their eyes the necessity of supporting themselves by supporting the army. The French were divided into two great parties, the lovers of order, and the jacobins. The former were the most numerous, as well as respectable ; the latter the most united, daring, and active. The directory endeavoured to acquire popularity, by forbearing the imposition of fresh taxes : supplies of men, and all necessities were wanting to the armies ; nor were the sums which were raised honestly applied to public services ; and the directory became odious and despicable. The discomfiture and defeats that every where attended the French armies, in the earlier part of 1799, united with a general contempt and detestation of the executive government, awakened the courage with the hopes of the jacobins, and threatened the moderate and peaceable part of the nation with a revival of the system of terror. The directors through fear resigned, and a new directory was substituted in their place ; the nation was in the greatest confusion ; and thought with regret on the absence of the renowned general who had given them victory and glory. Bonaparte was warned how much his political weight was wanted, and conceived what important effects his presence might produce at Paris ; he therefore resolved to leave Egypt.

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Internal
affairs of
France.

The directory becomes unpopular.

The revival of the system of terror threatened.

At his departure, he wrote a letter to the army, expressing the necessity of his immediate return to France, and declaring his regret to part from the brave men to whom he was so tenderly attached. Kleber he appointed commander in chief, during his absence, and Dessaix general of Upper Egypt. He set sail from Aboukir with two frigates and two sloops. On the 24th of August, without fearing interception, he encountered the Mediterranean; and in the end of September arrived at Corsica. Sailing from thence in the beginning of October, when he approached the coast of France, he was nearly overtaken by some English cruisers, but dexterously escaped the danger, by striking into a small seaport in Provence. As he passed from the south to Paris, he was received with triumphal honours. The courier who had been despatched before him, to announce his arrival to the directory, and to prepare relays of horses for his journey, called out for them every where in his name; and from every town and village the people rushed out to meet him, and accompanied him beyond their respective communities: so immense was the crowd, even in the roads, that the carriages found it difficult to go forward. At Lyons, but most of all at Paris, he was the object of enthusiastic admiration. These sentiments facilitated, and indeed probably produced the revolution of 1799.

Character
and views
of the abbé
Sieyès.

ONE of the new directors was the abbé Sieyès, a man of great metaphysical ability, combined with political address, who, though unamiable in his manners, had acquired very great sway with the moderate party of republicans. The abbé Sieyès had early foreseen, or apprehended, the discordant and fluctuating nature of the various forms of government that had been adopted since the overthrow of the monarchy. He had attempted, in vain, the introduction of a constitution, which, though still retaining the name, and in some degree the form of a republic, should be consolidated and swayed by one chief magistrate and a constitutional jury, or conservative senate; and, in the various changes that took place from time to time, he was a friend to an increase of power in the hands of the executive government. The abbé Sieyès had gained an ascendancy in the public councils, but had to contend with

the democratical party; and to overthrow the principles and plans of this faction by an opposite system, in which his own project of a single chief and a constitutional jury should be adopted, was the leading principle in his conduct and the great object of his incessant contrivance. In the returning disposition to the government of a single person, the sentiments of Sieyes, supported by his distinguished abilities, produced him very great influence among the moderate and much more numerous party; and at the return of Bonaparte, he was deemed the most profound political character in the civil department of the French republic; and indeed none could surpass him in the power of compassing his ends by intellectual dexterity and skill. His great object was to command the minds of men, and rather by convincing their understandings, or at least impressing on them his doctrines and views, than by interesting their passions. He spoke more to the opinions, than the feelings of men; was more desirous of obtaining proselytes than partisans. To employ an analogy which has been before used in the history, the artillery of Sieyes was rather logical than moral; the predominancy of his intellectual deductions, he seems to have sought more than external splendor and power. It was at first doubted whether the metaphysical depth of Sieyes or the sublime conception, invention, and design, the penetrating genius, firm and undaunted spirit, conciliating policy, and military renown of Bonaparte, would acquire the ascendancy: but a subtile and profound metaphysician, applying exclusively to reason, if he come into competition with one whose intellectual meditation is combined with a versatile and soaring imagination, with energy of affection and of active powers, applying not only to the reason but to the fancy and passions, will soon find himself totally surpassed in the power of commanding men. The profound philosophers might have greatly influenced transcendent genius engaged in energetic actions, but the acting statesman or heroes would always, if really men of superior ability, preside and govern. In no human society could a Locke, if he had turned statesman, have outstripped a secretary Pitt or a Marlborough; a Hume or a Montesquieu, a Frederic; an Aristotle, an Alexander. Among the susceptible,

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Popularity
of Bonaparte.He is ad-
mired by the
army.Plan of a
new consti-
tution.

ardent, and impetuous French, so fond of glory, not only of great, but of striking and brilliant actions and characters, there could be little doubt to whom the preference would be given, if a contest had actually taken place between Sieyes and Bonaparte; but, in fact there is no evidence that such a competition ever was in agitation. Indeed, their respective characters and circumstances rendered concert expedient and practicable. Bonaparte uniformly professed himself the votary of that moderate and regulated government, which suited the metaphysical delineation of Sieyes; and Bonaparte, from his talents, his popularity, and estimation among Frenchmen, was the most efficient person that could be found for carrying such a system of legislation into execution, and for undertaking the supreme active functions of such a government. Bonaparte soon manifested that he was inclined to jacobinical licentiousness, and joined the moderate party. He also showed himself very conscious that the fate of France was in his power. The army was at his devotion through all its ranks and gradations; among the people it was the object of idolizing admiration. Sieyes and Bonaparte admitted into their councils Roderer; these associates assured that the multitude, both civil and military, would follow Bonaparte, concerted a new plan of government: the ostensible and avowed object of this junto was to deliver the republic from the evils of jacobinism, which had produced such enormous mischiefs and dreadful miseries. The associates communicated their scheme to several members of the legislative assemblies, whom they reckoned confidants and friends. The prevalence of jacobinism and anarchy, they, with reason, imputed to too great preponderance of democracy in the legislature and government, notwithstanding the various correctives they had undergone since the dissolution of the national convention. The control of the council of elders was too feeble for restraining the violence and licentiousness of a popular assembly; the executive authority distributed among five, was totally inefficient and inadequate to its purposes. The principles of the projected change were, an increase of control upon the popular part of the legislature, and an increase of executive power; that for this purpose, there should be one supreme executive magistrate. The plan

for effecting this alteration, was a representative assembly: the members of the senate were to have a much more durable power than the former council of elders: to lessen farther the popular character of the legislative bodies, the chief part of their business was to be transacted by committees of twenty-five each, who were to arrange objects of police, legislation, and finance, in conjunction with the executive power: thus, the real deliberative body, instead of being excessively democratical, was now proposed to be oligarchical. The executive power was to be vested in three consuls, one of whom was to be the supreme magistrate. This executory was to possess the administrative functions in every department, and to appoint all the officers civil and military, for internal tranquillity; defence against foreign enemies, every kind of intercourse with foreign powers; in short, for every purpose of executorial conduct. More closely to unite the deliberative oligarchy with the executorial monarchy, influence was to be added to power; the members of the legislative bodies were not only allowed but invited to accept and exercise the manifold offices of honour, trust, and emolument, dependent on the chief consul. The abettors of this project enlarged the circle of their communication, and gained over a considerable number of the council of elders, who either really deemed such a change necessary for the suppression of jacobinical anarchy, or individually hoped for a much larger share of emolument and power, now that the management of the nation was to be contracted into so narrow a circle. Though many were trusted, yet with such discrimination and caution was the confidence imparted, that the secret was kept inviolate, until the moment of intended manifestation. Having concerted their plan, the associates with firmness, energy, and consummate ability, carried it into execution. By an article of the constitution of 1795, it was established, that the council of elders might change, whenever they should think proper, the residence of the legislative bodies; that, in this case, they should appoint a new place and time for the meeting of the two councils; and that, whatever the elders should decree with regard to this point, should be held irrevocable. Paris, where the jacobins were still so numerous,

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the scene for effecting the change with that ease and tranquillity which the projectors deemed most effectual for the promotion of their scheme. A majority of the council of elders were now gained over to their views. A committee of inspectors had been appointed to investigate the conspiracies alleged to be carried on by jacobins. The commission being in the interests of the associates, they reported the jacobin conspiracies as about to burst forth upon Paris. Early in the morning of the 9th of November, they sent letters of convocation to all the members of the council of elders, except noted jacobins. The members thus convened, not in real secret, were told that a terrible conspiracy of jacobins was preparing, and that the most effectual measures ought to be adopted for averting the danger. Carnot expatiated on the impending mischiefs, and the necessity of speedy and effective measures for deliverance. Regnier adopted the same tenor of reasoning, as to the alarming plots of jacobins, but was more particular and specific in recommending the means of delivery. They ought to transport the legislative body to a place near Paris, where they might deliberate safely on the measures necessary for the salvation of the country. Bonaparte was ready to undertake the execution of any decree with which he might be charged; he, therefore, proposed that the councils should be transferred to St. Cloud; and the motion was carried by a great majority. It was farther moved and resolved, that this translation should take place on the following day; that Bonaparte should be charged with the execution of the decree, and to take the necessary measures for the security of the national representation; that, for this end, he should be invested with the general command of every kind of armed force at Paris; that he should be called into the council to take the requisite oaths; and finally, that a message, containing the resolution of the council, should be sent to the directory, and to the council of five hundred.

Bonaparte is invested with the command of the army.

Translation of the legislative body to St. Cloud.

AN address was voted to the French people, stating the right possessed by the council of elders, to remove the legislative body to St. Cloud, and also the motives which had induced them to use the privilege in the present cir-

cumstances." The general avowed object of the council, was to repress the spirit of insubordination, faction, and commotion. The Parisians moved by this address, desirous of peace, and confident in Bonaparte, waited calmly for the developement of the catastrophe. Bonaparte by the decree of the council invested with irresistible military force, appeared in the hall of the assembly, accompanied by several generals; he informed the council that he would execute the decree in his own name, and that of his companions in arms: "assisted (he said) by my brave companions, I will put a stop to the prevailing disturbances: *we want a republic founded on civil liberty, or a national representation; we shall have it—I swear we shall.*" The message of the elders being read at the bar of the council of five hundred, the deputies not intrusted with the secret were struck with astonishment, observed silence, and suspended all deliberation. Various proclamations were published on the occasion, by the supporters of Bonaparte's schemes: one of these was by himself addressed to the army, he therein informed the soldiers of the command which had been conferred on him; inviting them to second him with their accustomed courage and firmness, promising them liberty, victory, and peace, and to restore the republic to the rank which two years ago it had held in Europe, and which incapacity and treason had brought to the verge of destruction: he announced to the national guard at Paris, that a new order of things was on the point of being settled; that the council of elders was going to save the state, and that *whoever should oppose their designs, should perish by the bayonets of the soldiers.* Still the supporters of the intended revolution endeavoured to represent their project as the result of rectitude and patriotism; and for this purpose they employed various engines of conciliation, especially the press.*

Bonaparte's address to the army.

* See Annual Register for 1800, p. 14.

o On the celebrated 9th of November, a pamphlet was distributed at the door of the two councils, entitled "A Dialogue between a Member of the Council of Elders, and a Member of the Council of Five Hundred." This production was in the usual style of dialogues, written by a party author, between a champion of his own side, and of the opposite; in which the former has the argument all his own way; or if his shadowy antagonist urges any objections, they are feeble, and easily overcome. The advocate of the elders endeavours to

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BONAPARTE sent a considerable force to the council of the elders; he himself, with a great number of officers repaired to the Thuilleries, the approaches to which were shut up from the public; a strong detachment of artillery was stationed near the hall of the council of five hundred; these different bodies were reinforced in the evening by additional troops, and particularly by cavalry and artillery: the directory were invited to resign, but they refused to comply; the refractory were put under guard; the decree was sealed for translating the different bodies; the directorial guard joined with Bonaparte's guard, and with an immense military force repaired to the hall of the assemblies were to meet, under the superintendence of the general and army. The directors now abandoned their offices; motions were made for inquiring into the reasons of the translation, but these were immediately overruled. Bonaparte now entered the council of elders, and in a speech, informed them, that he was come with his brave companions in arms devoted to their service, and to the good of their country; he was *not* a Cromwell or a Cæsar, coming with bands of supporters to establish a military government; but a *friend to freedom* and his country, joined with his valiant fellow patriots, who had so often been crowned with signal victory, to save them from intestine destruction: conspiracies were going forward; cherished by these, rebellion was again rearing its head; the nation was in the most imminent danger; the most vigorous and decisive measures were necessary. The present constitution (he said) has been a pretext for all manner of tyranny; for the preservation of the republic it must be completely changed; the

He enters
the council
of elders,

remove the scruples and to allay the fears of the other, by observing, that the translation of the councils was a constitutional measure; that in the present circumstances, it was necessary to the freedom of deliberation and debate; that as to ensuring the execution of this measure by an armed force, this also must be considered as a thing constitutional, or clearly within the powers of the council of elders, who, if they could change the residence of the legislature, must also be supposed to possess the means of changing it in peace and safety. Protection would be afforded to liberty and property, the constitution would be restored, the reign of terror and jacobinism would be entirely overthrown. This reasoning convinces the advocate of the five hundred, but he expresses his apprehensions from the interference of Bonaparte. These the other advocate removes by expatiating on Bonaparte's character, and quoting Bonaparte's professions and conduct. His very acceptance of the commission which he was called upon to execute, was an unequivocal proof of his moderation and patriotism.

constitution, too often violated, is utterly inadequate to the salvation of the people: it is indispensably necessary to have recourse to means fitted to carry into execution the sacred principles of the sovereignty of the people, civil liberty, and freedom of speech as of thought, and in a word the realization of ideas hitherto only chimerical. Some members of the council manifested a spirit of opposition to the general; but in the council of five hundred, he had to encounter much more serious obstacles than that which he had experienced in the elders; and there was a very general cry of "support the constitution, no dictators, we are not afraid of bayonets." This last declaration was soon put to the test; while the assembly was engaged in debate, the door opened, Bonaparte entered, accompanied by a party of grenadiers, while vast multitudes of soldiers beset the entrance. The assembly was in an uproar; many called out, "dare armed men enter the legislative assembly of a free people! down with the dictator!" Many darting from their seats, seized the general by the collar, and pushed him towards the door; one person aimed a dagger at his breast, which was parried by a grenadier. General Le Febre now rushed in with a much larger body of soldiers than had at first rescued Bonaparte. The president of the assembly was Lucien Bonaparte, the general's brother: the meeting being in a most violent ferment, the chairman was in imminent danger. Bonaparte himself meanwhile harangued his soldiers, who declared they would stand by him to the last extremity. A party entering the assembly hall, rescued Lucien from the enraged deputies, whom the general described as factious assassins, opposing patriotic efforts for the salvation of the republic. The president exhorted the general to deliver the representatives of the people from conspirators of their own number, that they might deliberate peaceably concerning the destiny of the republic. To secure the peaceful exercise of their legislative functions to patriotic members, application was made to the grenadier guards. The soldiers were ordered to reenter the hall; and, without firing upon the refractory members, simply to charge bayonet: they entered accordingly with drums beating, and marched up the hall.

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1799.

and is favourably received. He is opposed in the council of five hundred;

but is seconded by grenadiers with bayonets.

The partisans of Bonaparte pray for his assistance to enable them to deliberate peaceably.

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1799.

The grenadiers remove the refractory members.

Dissolution of the legislature.

New constitution.

Bonaparte is chosen chief consul.

Before he gave the signal for charge, the commanding officer of this brigade took the speaker's chair, and first called out, citizens representatives, this place is no longer safe ; I invite you to withdraw. Plain as this hint was, it did not prove sufficient ; and his next address was still plainer. Representatives, withdraw, it is the general's orders. Many of the members continuing reluctant, the officer's next address was still shorter, and directed his men to present bayonets ; the drums beat to the charge, the house was immediately cleared, or to use a word more historically appropriate was *purged*.^p The council of elders now declared that the factious assassins of the other house did not deserve the name of representatives ; and therefore that they, the council of elders, were the whole of the national representation. They however invited those in the other council, who had not opposed their measures, to resume their meeting. Having accordingly met, they joined in reprobating the factious malignity of their late jacobinical brethren ; in bestowing the highest praises on the intentions, councils, and efforts of Bonaparte ; and in testifying the warmest gratitude to the officers and soldiers who, by repressing outrageous violence, had proved themselves such efficacious friends of moderation and freedom. They farther declared their resolution to cooperate in the measures of the general and council of elders for saving the country. In this harmonious disposition of the legislative bodies, was presented the project, of which the outlines are already exhibited : and after some detail of discussions and illustrations, very unanimously adopted. Those members of the lower council, who had so violently opposed the projectors of the new revolution, were entirely excluded from a seat. The supreme objects of the new constitution were to be the reestablishment of tranquillity, virtue, prosperity, and happiness at home ; and to restore peace with foreign nations. The consuls chosen for executive administration, were Ducos and Sieyes, two of the late directors ; the chief consul, and supreme executive magistrate, now elected, was Bonaparte. The first

^p See colonel Pride's process in the house of commons, under the direction of Oliver Cromwell.

measures of this extraordinary man, now at the head of the French nation, were directed to conciliation, both domestic and foreign. He had uniformly, when less exalted in station, professed himself determined to bestow peace upon Europe : he regarded the British nation with the warmest admiration of its character, enhanced by the astonishing exertions by which she combated the gigantic efforts of the French republic, he saw it was the interest of the two chief nations of the world not to exhaust themselves in unavailing war. The first act of foreign policy in his consular supremacy was to bring the two chief nations of the world to peace.

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LXVI

1792.

Offers
peace to his
Britannic
majesty.

Britain.

IN Britain, the energy of 1798 had continued through a considerable part of 1799 ; the battle of the Nile reanimating Europe, had encouraged the imperial powers to hostilities. These hostilities had been attended in the first part of the campaign with signal success. The discomfiture of Jourdain in Germany, and the expulsion of the French from Italy, was imputed to the spirit and contributions of Britain, as the ultimate cause and means of the operations. The retreat of Bonaparte from the siege of a fortress, which Englishmen undertook to defend, being his first failure in any military attempt, added to the national exultation. He that had conquered all with whom he contended, from Britons only found he was not invincible. It was not doubted but Britain and her allies would now succeed in repressing the ambition of France, driving her back within her ancient limits, and permanently securing her neighbours from future encroachments. Those who considered the restoration of the Bourbon family as necessary to reestablish in France, and maintain in other countries, religion, justice, property, and social order, trusted that, under Providence, the Russians, wisely seconded and supported, would recall civilization and humanity to France, and prove the saviours of Europe from the barbarising doctrines and conduct of the republicans. Not those only who considered the revival of French monarchy as indispensably necessary to the safety of Britain, but the greatest number of the more moderate supporters of the war, expected the campaign of 1799 would be decisively successful. The formidable

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1799.

Gloomy
prospect.People
again wish
for peace.1800.
Meeting
of parlia-
ment.Proposals
of the con-
sul to our
king.

armament prepared against Holland added to the general hopes. It was confidently expected that such a force, cooperating with the multitudes reported and supposed to be inimical to French supremacy, would recover the united Netherlands, and even cooperate with the archduke in regaining Belgium. The failure of this expedition was a gloomy disappointment. By far the greater majority, estimating plans and execution from the event, without allowing for unforeseen obstacles, supposed that an army of forty thousand men, supported by such a fleet, might have been much more effectual; or that the difficulties might have been foreseen, and that, therefore, the expedition ought not to have been undertaken. They saw that British valour and skill had been exerted in the successive operations, but that the result had been disaster and injurious concession. They hastily and rashly concluded, that either the destination of so very powerful, gallant, and well officered an army, was unwise, or its conduct unskilful, merely because it had not been completely successful. Such precipitancy of judgment spread great dissatisfaction throughout the country; and severe censure was bestowed, before an investigation of facts could ascertain its merits. Accounts also arriving in the close of the year, of the failure of the Russians in Switzerland, and their retreat into Germany, despondency again began to prevail, the people revived their wishes for peace, because they again conceived that no purpose could be answered by continuing the war.

PARLIAMENT met on the 2d of February 1800. The first consul of France had at this time indicated to his Britannic majesty a desire of peace. In his letter declaring such a disposition, he appealed to our king in the following terms: "How can the two most enlightened nations of Europe, powerful and strong beyond what their safety and independence require, sacrifice to ideas of vain greatness, the benefits of commerce, internal prosperity, and the happiness of families? How is it that they do not feel that peace is of the first necessity, as well as the first glory? These sentiments cannot be foreign to the heart of your majesty, who reign over a free nation, and with the sole view of rendering it happy.

France and England, by the abuse of their strength, may still for a long time, for the misfortune of all nations, retard the period of their being exhausted; but I will venture to say, the fate of all civilized nations is attached to the termination of a war which involves the whole world." To this letter, conciliatory in spirit, precise and forcible in argument, an answer was returned, much more copious in detail, but by no means conciliatory: its purport was, that the French government afforded no grounds for trust; the most effectual way to convince Great Britain that France was disposed to resume its former relations, would be the reestablishment of that line of frontiers, which for so many centuries maintained the French nation in prosperity at home, and in consideration and respect abroad. The king, however, did not prescribe to France the disposition of her executive authority; as soon as he saw, that peace could be made with security, he would most readily concert with his allies the means of pacification; but as, in the present state of France, he could not hope for the stability of any treaty, he with other powers must persist in a just and defensive war. The chief consul of France made another attempt at negotiation: Talleyrand, the foreign minister, in a letter to the foreign minister of England, vindicated the conduct of France from the censures contained in lord Grenville's speech, and proposed that a suspension of arms should be immediately concluded; and plenipotentiaries sent to Dunkirk, or any other convenient place of meeting; the reply to the second proposal like the first consisted of seven repeated charges of French aggression, and declared that no peace could be made unless such as was likely to be secure and permanent. The propositions of the French government being laid before parliament, the rejection of the overtures was by ministers defended upon two grounds: the first was, that France still retained those sentiments and views which characterized the dawn, and continued her march with the progress of her revolution: the second, that no safe, honourable and permanent peace could be made with France in her present situation.^q From a long

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Answer,
rejecting
his propo-
sals;

submitted
to parlia-
ment.

^q See Parliamentary Debates.

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Argu-
ments of
ministers:
insincerity
and instabi-
lity of
Bonaparte.
Of opposi-
tion, that
Bonaparte
is disposed
and com-
petent to
make
peace.

detail of his conduct, they endeavoured to prove that no confidence could be reposed in the sincerity of Bonaparte; and though he himself were inclined to preserve good faith, that there was no security for his stability. The censurers of the rejection argued, that abuse of the personal character of the man whom the contending nation had chosen for its head, was neither conciliatory nor beneficial: it was far from tending to procure peace, and certainly did not promote the purpose of war: our glorious successes in wars with France, had come from fighting, not from railing; ministers (Mr. Fox said) in their rage against the adversaries of the old French monarchy, had formed a very indiscriminate idea, that they were all unanimously profligate and unprincipled; such accumulation of abuse had been often bestowed upon the Americans, still we had found it necessary to treat with them at last. Of Bonaparte's character they had formed a very inadequate estimate: however, even supposing the chief magistrate of France to be as faithless and iniquitous as ministers represented, he could see no inference they could draw from the admission, justificatory of their rejection: were we to enter into no agreement with persons or states whose conduct was demonstrably unjust? Had we not made peace with the Bourbon princes, the tyrants of their own country, and plunderers of their neighbours? Did we reject overtures with Lewis XIV. and proclaim as our reason, that he had in the midst of peace, seized the provinces of enfeebled Spain, and carried butchery and havoc into the peaceful palatinate?^r Did we forbear alliance with the plunderers of Poland? What was our security for either peace with one, or alliance with the other? Certainly their interest; not their faith nor their virtue. We had the same security with Bonaparte: he, like all other statesmen, no doubt, wished to make a peace advantageous to himself and the nation over which he presided. With regard to stability, whether Bonaparte remained chief consul or not, peace and not war was the interest of France. If ministers really wished to continue the war eternally, unless the Bourbon princes were restored, let

^r Parliamentary Debates, Feb. 3d, 1800.

them reflect on its practicability; the external force of the confederacy had tried it in vain, and from internal efforts it was not to be hoped. The whole property of France, real or personal, in the hands of its present possessors, depended on the existence of the present, or some similar government: it was impossible to restore the princes of the house of Bourbon, without restitution to those who had been exiled in its defence, which in effect raised up the whole property in the nation to support the republic, whatever they might feel concerning its effects: the attempt was as hopeless as the intention was unjust; inconsistent with the objects of the British constitution, and the rights of an independent nation. This country, from an accumulation of causes, principally originating in the war, was in very great distress: ministers had for seven years persevered in their ruinous system; taught by woe-ful experience, they ought to have at last admitted proposals for peace. These arguments might perhaps appear to many hearers or readers not to be without weight, but they made little impression on the majorities in parliament; and addresses were voted, highly approving of the answer returned by government to Bonaparte.

The rejection of the overtures is approved of by great majorities.

PERSEVERANCE in the war being still determined, preparations for the ensuing campaign came under their consideration. Messages to the respective houses from the king, stated that his majesty was at present employed in concerting such engagements with the emperor of Germany, the elector of Bavaria, and other powers of the empire, as might strengthen the efforts of his imperial majesty, and materially conduce to the advantage of the common cause, in the course of the ensuing campaign.^a Certain advances would be necessary if the treaties were concluded, and he recommended to his parliament to make provision for such eventual engagements. The arguments against the proposed subsidy, were the inefficacy of all our former subsidies in the present war, and the distressed state of the country, from the enormous load of taxes, and the unprecedented price of the necessaries of life. It was also inferred, that ministers were well assured of the secession of the Russians from the confederacy. The parliamentary major-

German subsidies.

^a Parliamentary Debates, Feb. 13th, 1800.

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1800.

Motion for
an inquiry
into the ex-
pedition to
Holland,

ity overruled all objections, and the required subsidies were voted. The military and naval force appointed for the service of the year 1800, was nearly the same as in the former year. The income tax was continued; and including a vote of credit, there was a loan of twenty-one millions. Amidst the arrangements for the future campaign, opposition proposed an inquiry into the past.^t An army of forty thousand men had been employed in Holland: had fought most valiantly; but no good purpose, they averred, had been effected; very great losses had been incurred, and very humiliating conditions had been accepted. Did the miscarriage arise from weakness of plan, or tardy preparations? from defective execution; or from resistless bad fortune? To ascertain the cause, they proposed an inquiry. If the disasters were entirely owing to fortune, an inquiry would acquit both the planners and executors; without an inquiry, the one or the other, or both, might be unjustly accused. Ministers endeavoured to prove that the proposers of the expedition had not failed; as besides the ships that surrendered to our fleet, our army had caused a very powerful diversion, and had no doubt contributed to the signal successes of our allies. As the expedition could not be properly said to have failed, an inquiry was totally unnecessary. The opponents replied, that the capitulation to an inferior force required to be investigated, both for the honour and interest of the country; but the motion was rejected by a great majority.

rejected by
a great ma-
jority.Progress
of the in-
tended
union with
Ireland.
Proposed
articles.

THE union between Great Britain and Ireland underwent an ample discussion in both houses of the Irish parliament; eight articles were proposed by the secretary of state as the foundation of this measure. The first imported, that the two kingdoms should be united on the 1st of January 1801: the second, that the succession to the crown should continue limited and settled, in the same manner as it now stands limited and settled according to the union between England and Scotland; the third, that the same united kingdom should be united in one and the same parliament; the fourth, that four lords spiritual of Ireland, by rotation of sessions, and twenty-eight lords

^t Parliamentary Debates, Feb. 10th.

temporal of Ireland, elected for life by the peers of Ireland, should be the number to sit and vote, on the part of Ireland, in the house of lords in the parliament of the united kingdoms; the fifth, that the churches of England and Ireland should be united into one protestant episcopal church, to be called "The united Church of England and Ireland;" the sixth article proposed a fair participation of commercial privileges; the seventh left to each kingdom the separate discharge of its public debt, and arranged the proportions of national expense; fifteen parts to be defrayed by Britain and two by Ireland; the eighth ordained, that the laws and courts of both kingdoms, civil and ecclesiastical, should remain as they were now established, subject however to such alterations as the united legislatures might hereafter deem expedient: all laws, at present in force in either kingdom, which should be contrary to any of the provisions that might be ordained by any act for carrying the above articles into effect, from and after the union should be repealed. Irish ministers supported the union as in its principal and objects mutually beneficial to the contracting parties; in its articles, thoroughly consonant to these principles, conducive to the commercial and political improvement of both, and peculiarly advantageous to Ireland. The legislative weight of the respective countries was, they said, apportioned to the compound result of the population and contribution, and a majority of the people was favourable to the union. The measure was opposed, as tending to render Ireland a dependence upon England. The legislative portion allowed by these propositions to Ireland was inadequate. The two nations were now identified by this junction of legislature: the transfer of legislature from Ireland to England would drain the country, without affording any adequate reflux to Ireland. No authentic documents had established the arguments of the unionists, that legislation was by this treaty apportioned to population and contribution. It was merely an assertion without a proof, and therefore ought not to be the foundation of a political arrangement. Before so great a change was permitted, an appeal should be made to the people: if the Irish in general did not oppose the new scheme, their inaction was owing, not to convic-

Arguments for
and
against:

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The plan
of union
and time of
commence-
ment are
finally
fixed by
both par-
liaments.

tion of its utility, but to fear of the immense military force employed by government in Ireland. These reasons were urged both in debates and protests; the project of union however was adopted by a great majority in both houses. The concurrence of the Irish parliament with their plan of union being communicated to the British, the respective resolutions were reciprocally ratified, and a bill founded on them was introduced. On the 2d of July, it received the royal assent; and it was provided that the union between Great Britain and Ireland should commence on the 1st of January 1801, being the first day of the nineteenth century. The suspension of the habeas corpus was, after a considerable discussion, continued.

Dearness of
provisions.

PROVISIONS being during this session uncommonly high, attracted the attention of parliament. Mr. Pitt, on the soundest principles of political economy, sanctioned by the authority of the ablest writers,^u had abstained from all interference in the corn market. The speculations of individuals he conceived were more likely to produce an adequate supply of foreign wheat at the present crisis, than any other measure that could be adopted. The legislature confined its attention to the contrivance of substitutes, and diminution of consumption. Committees appointed by both houses reported, that, although a considerable importation of wheat from foreign countries had already taken place, and more might be expected, yet they felt they should not discharge their duty, unless they strongly recommended to all individuals, to use every means in their power to reduce the consumption of wheaten flour in their families, and encourage in the districts in which they lived, by their example, influence, and authority, every possible economy in this article. They farther recommended, that all charity and parochial relief should be given, as far as was practicable, in any other article except bread, and flour; and that the part of it which was necessary for the sustenance of the poor, should be distributed in soups, rice, potatoes, or other substitutes. They were of opinion that, if this regulation were generally adopted, it would not only, in a very great degree, contribute to economise at

^u See Wealth of Nations, on the corn laws.

that time the consumption of flour, but that it might have the effect of gradually introducing into use a more wholesome and nutritious species of food than that to which the poor were at present accustomed. From the evidence of bakers it appeared, that the consumption of bread baked some hours was much less considerable than if eaten raw. At the instance of the committee, a bill was brought prohibiting bakers from exposing any bread for sale which had not been baked twenty-four hours; and immediately passed into a law. In considering the scarcity, and investigating its causes, derived them chiefly from the war; and various incidental debates took place on the subject. Mr. Pitt from a detailed view of the prices of provisions during the whole contest, argued that the scarceness had arisen from the war, the increase would have been progressive; whereas the prices in 1796, 1797, and 1798, had been as low as in peace, and the rise had not taken place till 1799; and was obviously imputable to the wet, late, and unproductive harvest.

WITH the necessities of life, public morals occupied the attention of the legislature. The crime of adultery being extremely prevalent, was by many supposed to excite in frequency the dissolution of former times. It was conceived by various political moralists, that the permission granted to the offending parties, after a divorce, to intermarry, was one powerful cause of the seduction of married women. To remove this incentive, lord Auckland proposed a bill, making it unlawful for any person, on account of whose adultery a bill of divorce should be applied for in that house, to intermarry with the woman from whom the complaining party might be divorced. This restriction, his lordship observed had always prevailed, and still did prevail in Scotland, where the parties, after being divorced, were never permitted to marry. The diversity of the case here, in his opinion, in a great measure accounted for the prevalence of the crime. This bill was strongly contested in the house; both the supporters and opponents admitted and lamented the frequency of a crime, cutting asunder the most important ties of social life; both showed themselves friends of religion and morality, pursuing the same object, through different

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1800.

Corn and
bread bill.

Bill of lord
Auckland
concerning
the marriage
of divorced
persons.

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The duke
of Claren-
ce's
view of the
subject.

Argu-
ments for
and
against.

is rejected :
warmly en-
gages the
public at-
tention.

Attempt at
the theatre
to assassinate
our so-
vereign :

means. Lord Auckland reasoned, that the certain preclusion from subsequent marriage, would in many cases operate as a preventative of the crime ; the force of their reasoning obviously depended upon the admission of a general fact, that the hopes, or at least the probability, of a future permanent relation, facilitated the temporary success of a seducer. The opponents of the bill, the most active of whom was the duke of Clarence, took a different view of the tendency of circumstances and situation, in determining female affections and conduct : the prohibition would not act as a discouragement of the vice ; the obstacle might inflame the passion, and furnish new materials to the dexterity of an accomplished seducer. Inefficacious to the prevention of the crime, it would produce the most pernicious consequences to the weaker of the parties concerned in the commission. Heinous and hurtful as this vice was, still it was possible that the seduced person might not be entirely profligate and abandoned. To the preservation of virtue, next in moral wisdom was recovery from vice, before it became habitual and inveterate : the present bill, if passed into a law, would drive the females to desperation and unrestrained licentiousness. Lord Carlisle also very strenuously opposed the bill in question : the law lords, and the bishops in general, supported lord Auckland's proposition ; but it was rejected by a considerable majority. This bill attracted the public attention much more than any measure which was introduced into parliament, in the course of the whole session. It was supported by the highest political, legal, and ecclesiastical authority ; was evidently devised from the best intentions, and framed with great ability : it may however be doubted whether the prospect of the restriction, would in many instances prevent the crime ; and it was morally certain that after it was committed, the restriction itself must powerfully tend to drive a female to infamous profligacy.

AN incident that happened near the close of this session warmly interested the feelings, not only of both houses of parliament, but of the whole nation. On the 15th of May, his majesty went to the theatre royal Drury lane : as he was entering the box, a man in the pit near the orchestra, on the right hand side, suddenly stood up and

discharged a pistol at the royal person. The king had advanced about four steps from the door : on the report of the pistol, his majesty stopped, and stood firmly. The house was immediately in an uproar, and the cry of "seize him !" resounded from every part of the theatre : the king, not the least disconcerted, came nearly to the front of the box. The man who had fired it was immediately dragged into the orchestra, and carried behind the scenes : his name was found to be Hadfield. Being examined by a magistrate, he exhibited symptoms of insanity ; though some of his answers were rational. The veneration and love that the nation bore to his majesty's person, was by this accident awakened into an enthusiastic joy at his escape ; even the spirit of faction was lost in a general stream of loyalty and exultation. Addresses of congratulation on the king's escape were presented by both houses of parliament, the universities, the corporation of London, and, in a word, by all the other corporations as well as the counties. Hadfield was tried in the court of king's bench for high treason ; and it was proved that he had been for some years insane, chiefly in consequence of wounds received in his head, when he acted as a serjeant in the army, in 1794, in Holland : he was therefore acquitted, but not discharged. In consequence of Hadfield's act, and repeated instances of insanity, being directed against a personage whose safety was so dear and important to the state, two additional clauses, by way of amendments, were added to the insanity bill. The first was to hinder individuals confined for alleged lunacy, from being bailed, in any circumstances, without the concurrence of one of the magistrates who committed him ; except by the judges, or at the quarter sessions of the peace. The second clause proceeded on a principle similar to the first, namely, security. The second clause provided more especially for the personal safety of the sovereign, repeatedly endangered by insane persons. These provisions were the last important acts of this session of parliament, which was prorogued on the 29th of July.

is found to arise from lunacy.

Anxious alarm of the public.

Amendment to the insanity bill.

Parliament rises.

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France—conciliatory efforts of Bonaparte—he invites the emigrants to return—insurrection not entirely crushed—he reduces the royalists army of reserve—state of the confederates and of France—plan of the campaign—state of affairs in Italy—the Austrians invest Genoa—assisted by the British fleet—gallant defence of the republicans—Massena is permitted to evacuate Genoa.—Bonaparte prepares to restore the French affairs in Italy—Moreau invades Germany—his able manœuvres to divert the enemy, while he assisted the army of Italy.—Bonaparte takes the field to retrieve the affairs of the French in Italy—rapid and astonishing march over the Alps—progress in Italy—battle of Marengo—danger of the consular army—means of extrication—signal victory—decides the fate of Italy—armistice between the chief consul and the Austrian commander—Italy surrenders to Bonaparte—measures of Bonaparte for settling the country—having effected his purpose, Bonaparte returns to Paris.—Moreau advances into Bavaria—armistice and overtures for peace.—The emperor receives a new subsidy from England—proposes to include Britain in the negotiation—Bonaparte refuses—prolongation of the armistice—expiration, and renewal of hostilities—operations—partial successes of the Austrians—battle of Hohenlinden—the French gain a decisive victory—the emperor sues for peace—review of this extraordinary campaign—war is terminated between France and Austria.—Operations of the British forces—expedition on the coast of France—attempt on Ferrol—on Cadiz—reduction of Malta—Egypt—convention for the evacuation of it by the French—guaranteed by sir Sidney Smith—ministers, not knowing this guarantee, refuse to ratify the convention—Kleber, the French general, renews hostilities—new negotiation is broken off.—West Indies—capture of Curacoa.—East Indies—wise administration of the governor general.

THE principal and most memorable events of 1800, arose from Bonaparte. The glory of the French arms, had in the absence of the conqueror of Italy, begun to decline : he now appeared, on his return, to be the only arbiter who could change the course of affairs, and the destinies of France ; and the name of king or emperor alone was wanting to Bonaparte. With a senate appointed by himself, and recruited from year to year by his sole influence ; he possessed the nomination of all officers, civil, political, military, and naval ; the command and distribution of the whole military and naval force of the empire ; the power of foreign negotiation on peace, war, and commerce ; a complete, though indirect, control over the treasury ; the sole privilege of proposing laws, and withdrawing them in any stage of deliberation or discussion. Being established as executive magistrate of France, he perceived the staggering state of the interior parts of the republic, and learned the consequence of the defeats which the French had suffered in Italy. Encouraged by the late failures of the republicans, the royalists in Brittany and Normandy had again taken arms ; and their numbers in November amounted to sixty thousand. Bonaparte saw that effectual as a force might be against the internal enemies of the republic, conciliation was much more beneficial. His general plan was to conciliate as many enemies of the republic as possible : he and all the members of the new government expressed a desire of peace, not only with the royalist armies of France, but even emigrants ; and published a proclamation, inviting exiles to return. Great numbers of loyalists, on the faith of government, daily came back to France ; among these the *constitutionalists*, or favourers of mixed monarchy and democracy, were permitted to come back : the greater number of those that fled in the time of Robespierre, or at the convulsion in September 1797, were invited to their country : even estates were restored so far as the restitution did not violate the new tenures of landed property. Notwithstanding the anxious endeavours of Bonaparte, the Chouans still persisted in revolt, and cultivated a correspondence with the British fleet. In the beginning of the year, the chief consul detached a considerable part

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France.

Conciliatory efforts
of Bonaparte.

He invites
the emigrants to
return.

Insurrection entirely
crushed.

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He reduces
the royal-
ists.Army of
reserve.State of
the con-
federates,
and of
France.

of the insurgents from the hostile confederacy against the French republic: where pacific measures did not succeed, he very effectually employed force and severity, and early in spring entirely crushed the insurrection.

HAVING established intestine tranquillity, and endeavoured in vain to negotiate a peace with foreign opponents, Bonaparte prepared for prosecuting the war. He published a proclamation in February, complaining of the obstinate resolution of the English to continue hostilities, and inviting the French to furnish the subsidies and men that were necessary for acquiring peace by force of arms. It was also at the same time deemed expedient by the consuls, that an army of reserve should be raised, to consist of sixty thousand men, composed of conscripts, and to be assembled at Dijon, where the first consul himself was to take the command of it in person. The Austrians had now recovered all Italy, except the small republic of Genoa, and their army was distributed in winter quarters through Piedmont and Lombardy. The Austrians, seconded by the English, prepared for military operations with great alacrity and vigour: even the abettors of peace, and among these the archduke Charles knew, that the most effectual instruments of a fair and favourable accommodation, were an immense body of troops ready for action. The armies were recruited, and a very strong and numerous force was prepared. The imperial forces of Switzerland and Italy occupied a semicircular line of communication, extending from the frontiers of Suabia to the coasts of the Mediterranean. The republican armies occupied the positions facing their enemy in an irregular line from Genoa to the valley of the Rhine; but the army of Genoa being blockaded by an English fleet under lord Keith, they were extremely straitened for provisions, and were in number very much inferior to the enemy: from the Var to Genoa, there were scarcely twenty-five thousand, almost all infantry. A reinforcement of fifteen thousand men from Switzerland and France were on their march to join the army of Italy; others were likewise promised; but those which had arrived, were few in number; and so great was the void in the ranks of the French army, produced by an epidemic fever, and by desertion,

Massena, in the month of April, had not more than twenty-five thousand men in the whole extent of the country of Nice, and of the state of Genoa : the distresses of the troops, during the rigours of winter, were very severe, and many of the soldiers were either dispirited or discon-

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Notwithstanding those unpromising appearances, Bonaparte proposed a bold, vigorous, and comprehensive plan of offensive operations : to invade Germany, drive the enemy from Switzerland, and recover Italy, by a co-ordinating line of armies. Moreau commanded the army on the Upper Rhine, which, by the indefatigable activity of the chief consul, amounted to 100,000 men, extending from Switzerland to Mentz ; on the left wing was secured Prussian neutrality, on the rear was protected by its communication with France and Belgium, and on the right was covered by the Helvetic Alps : with this formidable force he directed his course towards Vienna. Ill health together with court intrigues, obliged the archduke Charles to resign the chief command of the army of the Rhine, and he was succeeded by general Kray, an officer well qualified for so high and important a trust. Bonaparte in his efforts on the side of Germany, had a double purpose, and intended not only to make an impression on that quarter, but to draw off the attention of the enemy from his operations for the recovery of Italy : which, by those who in considering military situations had not included extraordinary genius, was supposed desperate. The chief consul appointed Massena, who had so eminently distinguished himself in Switzerland, to maintain the French positions there, until he should put his own grand designs in execution. Melas, early in spring, made dispositions for investing Genoa, which was already so closely blockaded from maritime intercourse by lord Keith. Massena endeavoured to obstruct their approach, and effected all that skill, valour, and discipline could perform against skill, valour, discipline, and superior numbers. He repulsed them in various conflicts ; but was more frequently overpowered, and at length compelled to retreat ; and on the 30th of April, the Austrians appeared before the city. On land the French were pressed by the German army ; from the sea, the city was bombarded by the English fleet ; within the

Plan of the
campaign.

State of af-
fairs in
Italy.

The Aus-
trians in-
vest Ge-
noa,

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assisted by
the British
fleet.Gallant de-
fence of
the repub-
licans.Massena is
permitted
to evacuate
Genoa.Bonaparte
prepares to
relieve the
French af-
fairs in
Italy.Moreau in-
vades Ger-
many.

walls, famine, and its never failing attendant pestilence, joined with conflagration in making the people loudly clamorous for a surrender, and with difficulty they were restrained from actual insurrection. Amidst these complicated evils, the republicans during the whole month of May, not only resisted, but often defeated the Austrians, until they were at length exhausted by their own victories. Massena, aware that relief was approaching, wished to maintain it much longer, but found it impracticable; he accordingly opened a negotiation with the British admiral and the Austrian general, and obtained very favourable and honourable terms. He was permitted to evacuate Genoa with his troops, and procured provisions and a safe conduct. In his conference, the sagacious Frenchman penetrated into the acuteness and intelligence of the English commander, and bestowed a just tribute of praise on the superiority of the British character, and the efficacy of the British force. By the fall of Genoa, many politicians considered the fate of Italy as entirely decided, and the hopes of France as totally destroyed: but the imperialists had still another general to encounter, whom they were destined never to combat without defeat and discomfiture. In stationing his army of reserve in the plains of Burgundy, the chief consul intended to afford assistance either in Italy or Germany, as occasion might require; but he was chiefly anxious to direct his efforts to Italy, where they were most wanted. With Moreau he had concerted the plan of the campaign, according to which their operations, though distant, might be managed in concert, on a great scale, and with as much precision as the evolutions of the two wings of the same army. The object of Moreau's expedition was, by a series of feints, not less than attacks, to occupy the attention of general Kray, to strike terror into the heart of Germany, to alarm the Austrians for the safety of the capital, and, at the same time, to maintain a communication with the French army in Italy, and send seasonable reinforcements.

To execute his part of the plan, Moreau, on the 25th of April, crossed the Rhine in four divisions, and formed a junction of the whole army in Suabia, with the lake of Constance on his right: by various feints and other ma-

mœuvres he turned the right wing of the enemy's army ; and in a series of engagements very bravely fought on both sides, he was so successful in the result, as to command Franconia and Suabia on the left, lay both under contributions, and intercept supplies, and destroy magazines. In front he occupied the attention of the whole Austrian army, while on the right he was able to send detachments to the south. He kept Kray so completely employed in counteracting his pretended designs, that he did not dive into his real intentions ; and for near two months, Moreau sought nothing further than to amuse general Kray ; by marches and counter marches, by threatened sieges, and feigned irruptions, to alarm the Austrians for the safety of the hereditary states, and prevent them from paying any attention to the affairs of Italy.

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1800.

His able manœuvres to divert the enemy, while he assists the army of Italy.

WHILE professional experience and tactical skill were thus, in Germany, overborne by the paramount power of genius ; In Italy its efficacy was still more forcibly, brilliantly, and successfully exercised. Informed of the critical situation of Massena, the chief consul resolved to march into Italy with the utmost expedition, and to surmount every difficulty in the passage of the Alps, in order to attack the rear of the Austrian army. On the 15th of May, his army reached St. Bernard, where the transportation of the artillery was extremely difficult : but by soldiers inspired with enthusiastic admiration for their renowned general, the difficulty was speedily overcome ; every piece of cannon was dismounted, and placed in troughs hollowed out of trees cut down for the purpose. These were drawn by five or six hundred men, according to the size and weight of the piece ; the wheels fixed to poles, were borne on men's shoulders ; tumbrils were emptied, and placed on sledges, together with the axletrees. This difficult march he executed with such rapidity, that notwithstanding an immense train of artillery, he had made his way through all the defiles in spite of the opposing enemy, by the 26th of May. The Austrians were obliged to evacuate Milan and Pavia. The French vanguard having crossed the Po, encountered an advanced corps of imperialists, and defeated them with considerable

Bonaparte takes the field to retrieve the affairs of the French in Italy.

Rapid and astonishing march over the Alps.

Progress in Italy.

CHAP.
LXVII.

1800.

Battle of
Marengo.Danger of
the consu-
lar army.Means of
extrication.

loss at Montebello; not however decisively. The main body of the Austrian forces now arrived from Genoa, and fixed its headquarters at Alessandria. Bonaparte came forward into a plain between Alessandria and Tortona, and both sides prepared for a general engagement. The French commander with the van of the army, on the 15th of June, had advanced as far as the village of Marengo. Early the following morning, he saw the Austrian line extending opposite to him, about six miles in length. Dessaix, with the rear division of the French, was not yet arrived. About noon the battle began: Bonaparte, though with so inferior a force, withstood the weight of the Austrian column with equal intrepidity and ability. The immense host however of the imperialists was making a very powerful impression. The left wing of the French began to give way, the centre and right to follow the example, and disorder was evident through the whole line. The Austrians perceiving the advantage, pressed forward, with an impetuosity which was inspirited by confident expectations of certain victory, to strike a finishing blow. The garrison of Tortona, seeing the confusion of the enemy, sallied out, and nearly surrounded the consular troops. Every movement appeared to forebode the total overthrow of Bonaparte. Undismayed by the impending danger, the general was foremost among the ranks, rallied his troops, and led them again to battle: his grand purpose was to prevent a route, until Dessaix, who was now near, should arrive. To render the overpowering numbers of the enemy less efficient, he seized a defile flanked by the village, there made a firm stand, bayonet to bayonet, though the Austrian infantry were seconded by a battery of thirty pieces of cannon, that played with tremendous effect. This unyielding resistance produced the consequence which the general had hoped; the rear division now arrived; the French combatants revived by this reinforcement, and assisted by a fresh corps, charged the enemy with enthusiastic ardour: but still the event was extremely doubtful, when a movement of the Austrian general gave a fatal turn. Melas found he could not force the defile; but elated with success, and not informed

that the reinforcement was arrived, he extended his line in order to surround the enemy. Bonaparte, perceiving this change of position, instantaneously saw how it might be improved: hastily he abandoned the defile; and, formed into a strong column, the consular troops pressed on the Austrians where their front was weakened by extension. Of the French, besides the strength of their disposition, a great portion was quite fresh; the Austrians, besides their weakened arrangement, were fatigued and exhausted, by the preceding efforts of the day. The French broke the line of the imperialists, bore down all before them, put the enemy completely to the route, and obtained a victory which decided the fate of Italy. All the united efforts of Suwarrow and his Russians, of the Austrian generals and their gallant troops, which had rendered the Italian campaign of 1799 so signally successful to the confederates, were now undone by the overwhelming genius of Bonaparte. The fruits of all the British subsidies which set those operose bodies in motion, were blasted at Marengo.

CHAP.
LXVII.

1800.

Signal victory,

decides the fate of Italy.

THE Austrian general finding it impossible any longer to defend Italy, applied for an armistice until a message should be sent to Vienna. Bonaparte granted his request, on agreeing to a conditional convention, the validity of which was to depend upon the ratification of the emperor, and the consul sent an envoy offering peace. The terms proposed by the conqueror were, in the relative state of the belligerent powers, wisely moderate. The Austrian army should retire within the line established by the treaty of Campo Formio; the Austrians should occupy the north-east corner of Italy, bounded by the Po on the south, and the Mincio on the west: Tuscany was to be a neutral state. Whatever answer should be returned from Vienna to these propositions, it was agreed that the armistice should not be broken without ten days previous notice. Meanwhile the fortresses, cities, and country, in the north and northwest of Italy, all surrendered to his arms.

Armistice between the chief consul and the Austrian commanders.

Italy surrenders to Bonaparte.

HAVING reconquered Italy, Bonaparte next considered its political settlement. He now resolved that Lombardy and Liguria should form, instead of two, one very powerful republic; and declared that resolution in a speech at Milan. He established a provincial administration, and

Measures of Bonaparte for settling that country.

the republic a constitution and
 respecting religion, and
 Citizens.
 were invited to return;
 taken arms against the
 of Campo Formio.
 momentous changes
 to Paris.

with Bonaparte,
 Having already mani-
 and consummate pru-
 Moreau now showed
 and decisive, as his caution
 were now arrived at
 when contending with
 the French general
 had been destroyed
 the opposite bank, ren-
 To remove this obstacle,

an expedient, manifesting
 the genius, which has so emi-
 winners of France in
 undertook to swim
 baskets and knap-
 to secure the
 took possession
 seized several
 with artillery men.
 the wrecks of the
 the left bank,
 extraordinary courage
 and bridge bullets,
 and the repairs, and
 The republicans
 Austrian army fell
 Bavaria. Moreau
 Bavarian terri-
 elector was con-
 of the sublimity
 had received from
 of Wittenberg

under a severe contribution. The right wing, commanded by Lecourbe, drove the Austrians entirely from the Grisons, and entered the Tyrol; while on the left, a new army of French and Batavians were preparing to enter Germany, to penetrate into Franconia and Bohemia. Animated by the exhortation and example of Britain, and supplied by her treasures, the emperor had hitherto refused the terms offered by the republicans; but, as their armies now menaced the very heart of his dominions, he judged it expedient to sue for an armistice, which Moreau, with the approbation of Bonaparte, granted on the 14th of July. On the 28th of the same month, St. Julien, envoy from Francis, in the name of his imperial majesty, signed at Paris the preliminaries of peace, on the basis of the treaty of Campo Formio; on the part of the French, they were signed by the minister of foreign affairs, the ex-bishop Talleyrand. Meanwhile, the emperor received a subsidy of two millions sterling from England, and had concluded a new treaty, by which the contracting parties stipulated for the one not to make peace without comprehending the other: the emperor, adhering to this engagement, endeavoured to include Britain in the negotiation. But it was the uniform policy of Bonaparte, to detach the members of the confederacy, and to listen to no terms but of separate peace. The emperor refused to ratify the preliminaries, alleging that St. Julien had exceeded his powers. The armistice was to expire on the 7th of September; the French government directed its generals to begin hostilities that day. The emperor imputing the rupture to the French, put himself at the head of the army, and endeavoured to rouse the force of Germany in defence of the empire; but the king of Prussia, in neutrality hostile, kept the whole north of Germany in the same inaction with himself, and intimidated its weaker princes from sending assistance to the head of the empire, and contributing to the repression of such formidable invaders. His imperial majesty proposed the prolongation of the armistice: the chief consul declared, that he would not waste the rest of autumn in idle conferences, or expose himself to endless diplomatic discussions, without securities for the sincerity of the enemy's intentions: the securities which he de-

Armistice,
and over-
tures for
peace.

The em-
peror re-
ceives a
new sub-
sidy from
England.

Proposes
to include
Britain in
the nego-
tiation.

Bonaparte
refuses.

CHAP.
XLVII.

1800.

Prolonga-
tion of the
armistice.Expira-
tion, and
renewal of
hostilities.
Opera-
tions, par-
tial suc-
cesses of the
Austrians.They as-
saulted the
French
lines.They as-
saulted the
French
lines.

manded were Philipsburg, Ulm, and Ingolstadt, with their dependent forts. This condition, though it laid the hereditary dominions of Austria in a great measure at the mercy of the enemy, being agreed to at Hohenlinden, a suspension of arms was concluded for forty-five days, commencing from the 21st of September. This interval was occupied by both parties in formidable preparations. Moreau's army was seconded on the left by Angereau, prepared with the French and Batavians to invade Germany, from the Maine; and on the left the army of the Helvetic Rhine, commanded by Macdonald, advanced as far as the entry of the Tyrol, and was ready to proceed on the first signal. The armistice expiring, the army of the left crossing the Rhine, defeated the Austrians in a series of engagements, penetrated through Franconia to the confines of Bohemia, and ascertained its communication with the army of the centre in Bavaria. Macdonald, defying the severities of an Alpine winter, pushed forward from the Grisons to the Valteline, drove the Austrians before him wherever he came, and supported by the army of Italy, was ready to advance to Austria, menaced by a still more formidable danger from the west. Moreau, with the grand and central army, resumed offensive operations on the 29th of November. The Austrians commanded by the archduke John, fourth brother of the emperor, making a very powerful resistance, repulsed the French army, and in their turn attacking their posts, obtained considerable advantages. Encouraged by these successes, the young prince ventured a general assault on the lines of the enemy at Hohenlinden, on the 3d of December. The archduke had no sooner begun his march, than he was retarded by a heavy shower of snow and sleet, by which he was so much retarded, that only the central column had arrived at the place of destination, at a time when all the divisions ought to have been ready for action. A division of the French, conducted by Richemont, pierced between the left wing of the Austrians, and the centre, reached the great road behind the centre, and assaulted the left flank and rear of that column, at a moment when it had turned in front, and commenced an attack.⁵ The

Austrians with their usual courage maintained the conflict for several hours, but were at length broken by the impetuosity of the French, thrown into irretrievable confusion, and entirely defeated with the loss of fifteen thousand men killed or taken prisoners. The battle of Hohenlinden decided the contest : the emperor found it impossible to stand against the rapidly advancing line of armies, every where victorious. The British court, sensible of the alarming situation in which the emperor was placed, released him from his engagements : he renewed his negotiations with the French, which have since terminated in the peace of Luneville : and thus ended a campaign between Austria and France, in which German valour, discipline, tactical skill, and military experience, having to contend with French valour, discipline, experience, and skill, invigorated and guided by genius, demonstrated the inefficacy of mere customary expertness and precedented usage, when, in new combinations and arduous circumstances, they had to contend with rapid, fertile, and energetic invention. The grand design of Bonaparte comprehended every vulnerable point of the enemy ; uniform in object, and consistent in plan, he with rapid versatility, varied operations as circumstances changed ; choosing his generals and officers according to their fitness ; he brought or sent with the mass of French courage and force transcendent ability to guide it to its ends ; and thereby completely effected his purposes : he recovered what had been lost, and compelled his enemy to sue for peace, which had been constantly and avowedly the object of his stupendous efforts in war.

WHILE the chief consul thus crushed every hope that Britain had derived from continuing the war on the continent, this country undertook several expeditions, either entirely maritime, or in which her naval power could co-operate with her efforts by land. A squadron, under the command of sir Edward Pellew, attacked the southwest of the peninsula of Quiberon, on the coasts of Bretagne, silenced the forts, and cleared the shore of the enemy ; a party of soldiers then landed and destroyed the forts.

CHAP.
LXVII.

1800.

The French gain a decisive victory.

The emperor sues for peace. Review of this extraordinary campaign.

War is terminated between France and Austria.

Operation of the British forces.

Expeditions on the coast of France.

His attack was afterwards made on various posts, and six
frigates, sloops, and gun vessels, were taken, a corvette burn-
ed, and a fort dismantled. This success was soon follow-
ed by an interception of supplies destined for the use of
the French fleet at Brest. On the 8th of July, an attempt
was made to take or destroy four frigates in the road of
Brest : captain Campbell,* of the Dart, took the St
Esprit, but the other ships, in number three, escaped
though not without considerable damage. An exploit
performed by Lieutenant Jeremiah Coghlan, about the
same time, excited high admiration, and is a signal instance of
the personal prowess, energetic courage, and unyielding
intrepidity which combine in British heroism. This young
gentleman was commandant of the Viper Cutter, under
the orders of sir Edward Pellew, and watching port Louis
near E Orient in Brittany : he conceived a design of
cutting out some of the gunboats that were at the entrance
of the harbour : with the permission of Pellew, he made
the attempt in a ten oared cutter : with a midshipman and
eighteen sailors, the gallant youth determined on boarding
a gun brig, mounting three twenty-four pounders, and had
six pounders, having her full complement of men, and
within pistol shot of three batteries. On the night of the
25th of July, he and his valiant comrades undertook the
enterprise : they boarded the brig, and though her crew
consisted of eighty-seven, charged the enemy, who made
a gallant resistance, and repeatedly repulsed their assail-
ants : but the British handful returned to the charge, and
with the loss of one killed and eight wounded, including
the commandant himself, our twenty countrymen over-
powered their eighty-seven enemies, and made a prize of
the brig.† Sir Charles Hamilton‡ appearing with a small
squadron near Goree, on the coast of Africa, the gover-
nor surrendered, and a British garrison took immediate
possession of the forts, and of Joul, a dependent factory.
In August, a fleet under the command of sir John Borlase
Warren, with a military force under the orders of sir
James Murray Pulteney, set sail on a secret expedition.

* See London Gazette, July 12th, 1800.

† See letters of sir Edward Pellew and lord St. Vincent, in the London
Gazette of August 9th, 1800.

‡ London Gazette, July 8th, 1800.

One object of this was, the conquest of Belleisle ; but the strong works that had been provided for the defence of that island, discouraged the attempt. The armament therefore proceeded to the coast of Spain ; and on the 25th of August, arrived before the harbour of Ferrol. Our troops effected a landing, but finding, on examining the ground, that an attempt to storm the place would be impracticable, they reembarked. Sir Ralph Abercrombie, with an army of about twenty thousand men, and a fleet of twenty ships of the line, commanded by lord Keith, appeared off Cadiz. An epidemic disease now raged in this city with pestilential violence. The governor of Cadiz sent a letter to the English admiral, stating to him the situation of the inhabitants, and the universal odium which must attend an attack on a city so afflicted by the visitation of heaven. The British commander replied, that as the ships in the harbour were to be employed in increasing the naval force of the French republic, they could avert an attack only by surrendering the vessels. To this requisition the governor would not agree, and declared a resolution of defending the place to the last extremity. The works were very strong ; the strength, however, of the place was much less formidable than the dreadful distemper, which indeed was a species of plague. The armament proceeded to the Mediterranean, where as it afterwards appeared, it was principally destined to act. A detachment reduced the island of Malta : there, and in Minorca, lately captured from Spain, the troops were chiefly stationed, until dispositions were made to carry into effect the ultimate purpose of the expedition.

CHAP.
LXVII.

1800.
Attempt
on Ferrol.

Reduction
of Malta.

WHEN Bonaparte left Egypt, in the close of 1799, he had conferred the chief command of the army on general Kleber. Before his departure he had made overtures for a pacification with the Ottomans ; and a convention for the evacuation of Egypt was settled between the French republic and the Turks, January 24th, 1800, and agreed to by sir Sidney Smith.^c The British ministers heard of the convention before they were informed that it was guaranteed by sir Sidney Smith ; and apprehensive that if the

Convention for the
evacuation
of, by the
French,
guaranteed
by sir Sid-
ney Smith.

^c See State Papers, January 24th, 1800.

CHAP.
LXVII.

1800.

Kleber the
French
general re-
news hosti-
lities.New nego-
tiation,
is broken
off.West In-
dies, cap-
ture of
Curacoa.
East In-
dies, wise
administra-
tion of the
governor
general.

French army returned, such a force might powerfully affect the war in Italy and Germany, they ordered lord Keith not to ratify any convention formed for that purpose. Kleber having demanded from lord Keith a safe conduct for the return of his army to France, the British admiral, agreeably to his instructions, declared he would not suffer him to pass unmolested. Meanwhile the grand vizier, with a Turkish army, having taken possession of many posts which the French had evacuated, demanded the immediate surrender of Cairo. General Kleber, urging that the English were hostile to the convention, refused to deprive his endangered army of so important a station, and announced his intention of renewing the war. On the 18th of March, he attacked a body of Turks, and routed them: he then engaged the grand army, and obtained a complete victory. The British court, understanding that the convention had been sanctioned by sir Sidney Smith, though not pleased with an act in which they considered him as having exceeded his instructions, to preserve the character of British faith, ordered the treaty to be ratified. Kleber consented to renew the negotiation; but before matters were brought to a conclusion, he was himself assassinated by a Turkish aga, and succeeded in the command by general Menou. From this time the negotiation appears to have been discontinued, and Menou to have resolved to defend Egypt to the last. Such was the state of affairs in that quarter of the world at the end of 1800. In the West Indies, the important island of Curacoa, belonging to the Dutch, was reduced by Britain. In the East Indies, the remains of the war with Mysore were completely crushed, and earl Mornington, now created marquis Wellesley, was wisely and successfully employed in promoting the civil, commercial, literary, and political improvement of a country, which he had so effectually freed from the great military disturber of its peace and happiness.

CHAP. LXVIII.

Britain—high price of provisions—riots in September—disturbance in London—vigour and activity of the volunteer associations—the tumults are quelled without bloodshed.—Negotiations for peace with France—French propositions deemed inadmissible by Britain.—Last meeting of the British parliament—inquiries concerning the price of corn—the scarcity is, by opposition, imputed to the war, which ministers deny—propositions for the interference of the legislature in the price of corn—rejected with great disapprobation—regulations for diminishing consumption, and encouraging importations—discussion of the late negotiation—supplies.—State of affairs at the meeting of the united parliament—disputes with the northern powers—public law of Europe, relative to belligerent and neutral nations.—Conduct of the northern powers—Denmark—and Sweden—discussion with Denmark.—Russia—rise and progress of Paul's enmity to Britain—interest of all nations to cultivate peace with Britain—efforts of Bonaparte to promote the hostile intentions of Paul towards England—lawless acts of Paul—embargo on British shipping.—Northern confederacy—the subject is discussed in the united parliament—unexpected change of ministry.—Short review of the late eventful administration—Mr. Pitt's situation, the most arduous of any recorded in the history of cabinets—new administration—alarming illness of the king—anxious concern of the people—recovery.—Inquiries concerning the last campaign—supplies—loans—taxes—additional imposts upon paper—effects of—liberal and wise bill of lord Moira, for the relief of insolvent debtors—further regulations for encouraging the importation of wheat—session rises.

IN Britain, the year 1800 was chiefly distinguished by the exorbitant price of the necessaries of life. This dreadful evil had progressively increased during the
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CHAP.
LXVIII.

CHAP.
LXVIII.

1800.
Britain
High price
of provi-
sions.
Riots in
Septem-
ber.

Disturban-
ces in Lon-
don.

Vigour
and activi-
ty of the
volunteer
associa-
tions.

The tu-
mults are
quelled
without
bloodshed

Negotia-
tions for
peace with
France.

summer ; but was borne with meritorious patience, in the hopes and belief, that the growing crop, alleged to be generally promising, would remove the calamity. When harvest commenced, the prices fell with considerable rapidity, upwards of one-fourth. But in September, while the belief still continued general that the crop was abundant, bread again rose ; and reports were spread that the evils proceeded chiefly from monopolizers combining to enrich themselves by the public distress ; and facilitating the efficacy and extent of their combinations by paper currency. Ever prone to judge and to act from present impulse, without investigation of cause, or reflection on consequence, the multitude easily swallowed these opinions ; and many persons thought, by intimidation and force, to reduce the price of bread. In manufacturing towns riots began, especially at Birmingham ; thence they reached London. In the night preceding Monday the 15th of September, inflammatory bills were posted on the monument, urging the people to rescue themselves from famine by their own exertions, and to take vengeance on monopolists and fore-stallers. In the morning a mob appearing in Marklane, insulted the corn dealers, and clamorously demanded the reduction of the price of bread. Mr. Combe, the lord mayor, justly and forcibly represented to the populace that turbulence and violence could only aggravate the evil of which they complained. Being obliged by their obstinacy, to read the riot act, he at length succeeded in dispersing them without military aid. The riot was afterwards renewed ; and though the mob was violent, the chief magistrate, now supported by the volunteers, still hoping to quell them without bloodshed, did not order the associations to fire. For several days there were tumults in different parts of the city ; but the ready attendance and firmness of the volunteers intimidated the populace, and without actual use of arms repressed the commotions.

WHILE negotiations had been carrying on between Austria and France, the British government intimated a desire of being included in a treaty for peace. The chief consul, informed of this intimation, authorized Mr. Otto, a gentleman who was then employed in England as

exchange of prisoners, to demand an explanation of British proposals, and to request that a truce should be concluded between the French and British by sea and land. The British government was unwilling to send a plenipotentiary to a conference, as it was observed that a naval armistice had never been concluded between France and England during a negotiation, and the preliminaries had been actually signed; and, therefore, giving rise to disputes might obstruct the progress of a pacification. M. Otto answered, that the chief consul was made in consequence of the offer of Britain to negotiate jointly with the French, that view an English armistice would be an advantage to the French, for the obvious disadvantages attending the truce with Austria. The armistice was to be concluded between England and Austria, and the ships of Great Britain and France should have the freedom of navigation as before the war: that Malta, and Alexandria, should be in a similar situation with Ulm, Philipsburg, and Ingolstadt; and, accordingly, all French and neutral vessels should be allowed to supply each garrison with provisions and stores, and that the squadrons which formed the blockade of Brest, Cadiz, and Toulon, should return into their respective harbours, or at least retire from the respective ports. Lord Grenville, as secretary of foreign affairs, objecting to the principle of the armistice, as affording an advantage to France, in the discontinuance of the blockade, without any equivalent to England, proposed a project more equal in principle. This plan proposed to remove all means of defence from being conveyed into the ports of Malta, or any of the ports of Egypt, but to allow the necessaries of life to be introduced from time to time; it provided for the discontinuance of the blockade of Brest, Toulon, and other French ports, but tended to prevent all naval or military stores from being conveyed by sea; and the ships of war, in those ports, were to be removed to any other station. The French government, not satisfied with these propositions offered

a substance of this part of the narrative is taken from the State Papers, vol. 1, from September 4th to October 9th.

CHAP.
LXVIII.

1800.
French
proposi-
tions deem-
ed inadmis-
sible by
Britain.

Last meet-
ing of the
British par-
liament.

Inquiries
concerning
the price
of corn.

The scar-
city is by
opposition
imputed to
the war,
which min-
isters deny.

Proposi-
tions for
the inter-
ference of the
legislature
in the price
of corn,

this alternative: if Great Britain would agree to a separate negotiation, her scheme would be adopted; but, if she should insist on a general negotiation, the French project must be accepted. Lord Grenville insisted on he terms that had been already offered by Great Britain. After a fruitless discussion, M. Otto intimated that the joint negotiation was at an end; but added, that the first consul was disposed to receive any overtures for a separate treaty with Great Britain: to which proposal the British government, true to their ally, gave a decided negative.

THE last British parliament met on the 10th of November 1800, in order to despatch the most urgent business previous to the meeting of the united legislature. The subjects which chiefly occupied their attention were, the overtures to a peace with the French republic; the high price of provisions; and the immediate supplies for the national service. The opponents of ministry endeavoured, as in the former year, to charge the scarcity to the account of the war; but ministers still continued to resist this allegation. In considering dearth, the first point was to ascertain whether its cause was an insufficiency in the crop. Committees of the houses were appointed to investigate facts; and reported that the result of their inquiry was, that the crop was defective about one-fourth. To supply this deficiency, the greater number in both houses proposed the encouragement of importation both of corn and rice, the prevention of export, the use of substitutes in the mixture of quality, and diminution, both by precept and example of the quantities consumed. Propositions were offered for positive interference, in order to compel the sale of wheat, both in corn and flour, at prices not to exceed a certain sum, which, according to the calculation of the proposers, should allow an equitable benefit to the venders and raisers of these commodities. It was argued, that there were certain prices which sufficiently remunerated the farmer in point of labour, profit, and rent, which might be ascertained in defective as well as abundant crops; and that the present circumstances required a deviation from the usual principles of policy. But it was answered, that compulsory means, employed

by the legislature, respecting that species of property, were totally inconsistent with the security of every kind of property; regard to which so peculiarly distinguished the British laws and constitution. Upon what principle could you compel the farmer or corn merchant to bring that article to market upon less advantageous conditions than other commodities? by diminishing the security of the corn dealer's property, you impel him to withdraw, and deter others from employing so much capital in that commodity as would be otherwise applied, and lay the foundation for future scarcities. These views being adopted by great majorities in parliament without interfering in the price, they proposed to remedy the evil by diminishing consumption, and encouraging supply. Acts were passed for enjoining, for a specified time, the use of mixed and inferior kinds of bread, and for encouraging importation by granting very extraordinary bounties. Recommendations were added to all families and individuals, to be as economical as possible in the use of bread. Distillation of spirits was also suspended, that luxury might not employ grain, so much wanted for necessaries. These were the general objects of the enactments or exhortations of legislature, for meeting the scarcity.

CHAP.
LXVIII.

1800.
rejected
with great
disappro-
bation.

Regula-
tions for
diminish-
ing con-
sumption,
and encour-
aging im-
portation.

DISCUSSING the negotiation, a great majority in parliament approved highly of the resolution of government, not to conclude a separate peace. The opponents of administration predicted that Britain would ultimately be compelled to accede to a separate plan of pacification. The supplies required were voted, the British parliament was prorogued in the end of December, and the united parliament of Great Britain and Ireland met for the first time, January 22d, 1801.

Discussion
of the late
negotia-
tion.

Supplies.

BESIDES the war in which Britain was actually engaged, she was now likely to be exposed to hostilities from a confederacy of the northern powers. The right of a belligerent state to prevent neutral ships from conveying to the opposite party ammunition or stores that may enable him more effectually to carry on the war, is involved in the laws of self-preservation and self-defence. The general principle has been admitted in modern Europe by maritime states, and various treaties have been formed,

1801.
State of af-
fairs at the
meeting of
the united
parlia-
ment.

making the search thus to be prohibited. To exercise
 this power it was obviously necessary that the nations at
 war should have a discretionary power of searching ships
 suspected of carrying contraband commodities to the
 enemy. This power had been uniformly admitted, till the
 American war, when a wish to humble Britain, and the
 desire of finding for their merchandise a freer vent than
 was allowed by the existing maritime code of public law
 induced the naval confederacy styled the *armed neutral-*
ities of Holland and the northern powers. Dur-
 ing a great part of the present war, Russia, the principal
 member of this alliance, being inimical to France, had
 assumed every kind of commerce that could interfere with
 the efforts of England. Sweden and Denmark had often
 engaged in contraband traffic, and ships had been seized
 by the vigilance of the British cruisers, employed to pre-
 vent unlawful imports into the harbours of the enemy.
 Demands and replies had been reciprocally and re-
 ceived, and had terminated on the one hand with-
 out success, and on the other without preventing the
 continuance either of the northern contraband traffic, or
 of the British search of ships which traded. In this
 situation of things, when a dispute between a Danish
 minister and a fleet of merchantmen, introduced into
 the subject the general principle of the maritime law of
 nations. The Dane had admitted to Britain, as a belli-
 gerent power, the right of searching vessels not sailing under
 his flag, and had asserted that the company of a ship of
 war with trading vessels from being liable to examina-
 tion. A British envoy at Copenhagen stated to the
 Danish minister, the act that had taken place, and the
 principle upon which it was justified.^f The Dane admitted
 the force of the facts, and maintained the principle
 of the law of nations to public law. The English minister
 stated the point of history and actual conven-
 tion, which principle had ever been recognised; second-
 ly, that the assertion would amount to a virtual renuncia-
 tion of the right of search: because the smallest ship of

^f See correspondence between
 the British and Danish ministers from April 10th to December 31st, 1800, both

war, by accompanying the largest fleet of merchantmen, might secure the import of any quantity of contraband stores into the harbours of the enemy. The Danish minister continued to support the principle, but without either documents or apposite arguments. He alleged that the belligerent party had, in the honour of the neutral party, sufficient security that ships of war should not be employed to guard the conveyance of contraband articles. To rest upon the honour of another state, the maintenance of any right which she could enforce by her own power, little suited the policy or greatness of Britain. Our ambassador firmly, but temperately, stated and repeated the determination of Britain to search neutral ships steering towards the enemy's country, by whatever convoy they might be attended. Similar discussions and intimations took place at London between the Danish ambassador and lord Grenville. Britain, averse to hostilities, if they could possibly be avoided, released the Freya, a frigate belonging to Denmark which had been taken in protecting contraband stores, but maintained her right to the support of the principle. Sweden also took a part in the dispute, and maintained the principles of public law asserted by Denmark.^g Denmark and Sweden, however, could not have ventured to persist in maintaining a naval claim which Britain chose to dispute. But another state now not only joined, but headed the contest. The emperor Paul, in 1799 so eager a cooperator with Austria and Britain, was now become violently hostile to both. Conscious that, in Italy, the brilliant events of that campaign had been principally owing to the Russian host, he saw that the court of Vienna regarded the efforts of the Russians with jealousy, and forebore granting them the praise which they deserved. This disposition which had before partially appeared, the court of Petersburg readily perceived in the Austrian gazette account of the battle of Novi. The exposure of his armies in Switzerland in the latter end of the campaign, by the departure of the Austrians, he imputed to the same malignant and unwise jealousy, and conceived that the court of Vienna wished the Russians to encoun-

Russia.

Rise and progress of Paul's enmity to Britain.

^g See State Papers 1800, memorials between Sweden and other courts of Europe, from September 17th, to the end of the year.

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1801.

Efforts of
Bonaparte
to promote
the hostile
intentions
of Paul
towards
England.

Embargo
on British
shipping.
Lawless
acts of
Paul.

ter the chief danger, while the Austrians should reap the glory as well as the benefit. Under these impressions, he had withdrawn his troops from the scene of war. Not without reason offended with the illiberal and hurtful policy of Austria, so very inimical to the great objects of the combination, he had included the other ally in his suspicion and displeasure. The carnage of the Russians in Holland, arising from their own precipitate valour, he imputed to intentional exposure by their British allies: with these causes of disgust, real respecting Austria, and imaginary towards England, many other circumstances were combined to impel a monarch, that had neither sagacity nor patience for separating truth from falsehood, to withdraw from the confederacy. Since his secession, he rapidly became hostile to his former allies: his enmity to England fast growing in his weak and violent mind, was roused into immediate action by the capture of Malta, without being ceded to him as grand master: he was now seized with a desire of giving law to the first naval power in the world by sea, as the former year he had proposed to dictate to the first military power by land. Bonaparte comprehending the character, and learning the present dispositions of Paul, immediately conceived a design of rendering the mighty power of this weak and capricious monarch an instrument for promoting the schemes of France against England: his genius formed and directed the northern confederacy, that all maritime Europe might join in enmity to the mistress of the ocean. Paul, the puppet of passion and caprice, no sooner, declared his resolution to renew and extend the armed neutrality, than, contrary to every principle of justice and the law of nations, he laid an embargo upon all the shipping and property of British subjects, though he professed not to be at war with this country. Against such an act of flagrant and lawless injustice, mere diplomatic remonstrance, British ministers knew, could be of little avail: they, therefore, prepared a maritime force, which should teach the weak and capricious tyrant that neither the subjects nor the rights of Britain were to be violated with impunity. While the armament was preparing, however, attempts were made between Britain and the two smaller powers

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Interest of
all nations
to cultivate
peace with
Britain.

of the north, to adjust their differences amicably; but as they continued to insist upon their claims, and Britain would not renounce her valuable right which she well knew she had force to maintain, it appeared that force alone must decide the contest. An embargo was laid on the ships of northern powers. Nothing is more evident, than that the commercial exertions of Great Britain, promoting the industry and arts of the various countries, with which she traffics, and exchanging surplus for supply, benefits respectively and jointly every country within the wide range of her trade: it is therefore the interest of all those countries that her commerce should continue and increase, by which their emolument and gratification continue and increase in the same proportion: her capital, ability, and skill, stimulate their most lucratively productive labours, and enable them to purchase imported accommodation and luxuries: as the commerce of England is so much connected with her navy, it is advantageous to all other industrious nations, that her maritime greatness should flourish: enmity to the naval power of England in any country that has valuable commodities to export, and wishes with these to purchase necessary or pleasurable imports, is contrary to every principle of sound policy, and must arise from envy, jealousy, or some illiberal or unwise motive, and not from well digested projects either of accumulation or ambition: yet, not Paul only, the dupe of every whim and caprice, but other monarchs of much more respectable understanding, were persuaded, or impelled from jealousy, to seek hostility, which both indirectly and directly must impair their commercial resources, and diminish their naval power. Denmark and Sweden manifested a determination to cooperate with Paul.

Northern
confederacy

THE discussion with the northern powers was one of the principal subjects which occupied the attention of the first session of the united parliament. The question which thence arose, called forth on both sides very ingenious and able investigations of the maritime public laws, which both parties endeavoured to ascertain from natural jurisprudence, and consideration of the end of all laws, the mutual and reciprocal protection and benefit of the parties concerned from general and acknowledged usage,

The subject
discussed in
the united
parliament.

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and definitive and specific contract. A great majority of both houses concurred in thinking, that the pretended claims of the states in question violated the law of nations; that it was, therefore, just in England to resist their attempts; and considered the assistance which this illegal traffic might convey to the enemy as so important, as to render it expedient to employ force for its prevention.

IN the month of February, a very unexpected alteration took place in the British cabinet, by the resignation of Mr. Pitt and his principal^b coadjutors. For this unforeseen change various causes were alleged; a prevalent and popular opinion was, that in the present situation of the country, peace was deemed necessary, and that ministers who had manifested such hostility against the rulers of France, could not consistently be ostensible counsellors of peace: this, however, was an hypothesis that displayed neither a discriminating nor comprehensive view of the objects and policy of Mr. Pitt. From the commencement of the war, the minister uniformly professed to seek security, and to desire peace whenever it should be attainable with security: he had repeatedly tried negotiation with the French republic, ministers even had made overtures to the chief consul. When Bonaparte, in the beginning of 1800, proffered negotiation, the chief ground of rejection was the instability of the new government. In autumn 1800, after the events of the summer had ascertained the firmness of the consular establishment, our cabinet offered to treat, and the negotiation was broken off merely by a difference about terms. Before the close of the year the power of the French rulers, from signal success, acquired additional strength. Britain being left by her continental ally, and likely to be engaged in new hostilities, there were more forcible reasons to incline Mr. Pitt to peace, than at any of the periods when he made overtures for conciliation: recollecting and considering these circumstances, I can see no sufficient reason to justify the theory that Mr. Pitt resigned his office from unwillingness to be the adviser of peace; and his subsequent conduct contradicts, instead of confirming the

^b Except the duke of Portland.

supposition. Of the other ministers, arguing from their former measures and policy, I can find none that could be fairly inferred to be hostile to conciliation with France, except Mr. Windham, the friend and votary of Mr. Burke. The grounds alleged by ministers themselves for their retreat from their posts, have a much greater share of intrinsic probability, and are supported by various evidences direct and circumstantial.

IN the discussion of union with Ireland, Mr. Pitt and his supporters repeatedly mentioned the satisfaction of the catholics, as more practicable under an extended and united legislation, than a confined and separate; and he either by express stipulations had pledged himself, or by general assurances had impressed many others with a persuasion, that when the union should be effected, he would be the advocate of the catholic claims. I have indeed unquestionable information, that many before adverse, were induced to support the union by a conviction, that Mr. Pitt would speedily follow it by a proposition satisfactory to the catholics; that strenuous unionists considered Mr. Pitt as bound to introduce and support such a measure; and little doubt was entertained that a project which should be proposed by such a minister, would be finally adopted.

BUT another difficulty arose which proved to be unsurmountable; the virtues by which our monarch is distinguished, are not mere effusions of pleasing temper, or even amiable dispositions; his is a benevolence confirmed by moral principle, and conscience, at once expanded and directed by religion: in his relations and conduct to man, he regarded his duty to God; and in contemplating the engagements which he had incurred, he considered the Being to whom he had called as a witness; by his coronation oath, he bound himself to maintain the protestant religion, established by law: the proposed changes he regarded as inconsistent with that oath, and would agree to no project of policy which was not sanctioned by his conscience. Mr. Pitt, it appears, was so far engaged to support the claims of the catholics, that when unable to execute such an important measure, he deemed it expedient to resign; and this is the most probable and best authenticated

...of the

... ..

... ..

1 money must be a very secondary object : a passion much
1 more appropriate than avarice to superior minds, is
ambition. Mr. Pitt, at a very early age, sought power, and
acquired it by the fame of his personal qualities ; how he
employed it may be best seen from results. When he
became minister, he found the country in a very exhausted
state, he readily perceived that the extension of commerce,
improvement of finance, and promotion of public credit,
were objects of the most urgent and immediate concern :
justly concluding that peace was much more favourable to
trade and revenue than war, he set out as the votary of a
pacific policy. During many years of his administration,
commerce, finance, and credit were extremely flourishing :
his scheme for paying off the national debt, was very
effectual during the continuance of peace, and diminished
the burdens of the war.ⁱ His principles of foreign policy
were those which his ablest predecessors had adopted ;
that the interposition of Britain in the affairs of the conti-
nent is expedient, so far as it tends to preserve the balance
of power, for the security of Britain, and the independence
of Europe : the application of this principle to Holland, was
by all approved ; in the case of the imperial confederacy,
the vigour and energy of Pitt repressed, and in a great
measure dissolved, a combination that was extremely
dangerous to neighbouring states. No part of his policy
was more discriminately wise than his conduct in the first
years of the French revolution ; he carefully avoided not
only interposition, but even the expression of an opinion
concerning the new system and doctrines, while they did
not disturb this country. Even when they became preva-
lent here, while he adopted the most effectual precautions
for preventing their pernicious operation in Britain, he
carefully forbore any allusion to their consequences in
France ; he and his coadjutors observed the strictest
neutrality between the internal parties of France, and the
contending powers of France and of Germany. In the war,
on a fair view of the evidence^k on both sides, there now
remains little doubt that the French were the aggressors ;

ⁱ See accounts presented to the house of commons, of the public funded
debt, and the reduction thereof, No. 6. p. 8.

^k See this volume, chap. I.

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but on the broad question of expediency, the possibility and prudence of avoiding a war, there still exists a great diversity of opinion which must influence the estimate of the administration from that time. On the supposition that war was unavoidable, its conduct becomes the test for appreciating Mr. Pitt's talents, as a war minister; and here we must again refer to the results; where Britain acted in confederacy with other powers, she and they failed in most of the objects which they sought: going to war to defend Holland, and to prevent the aggrandizement of France, we suffered Holland to become a province, and France to acquire a power unprecedented in the annals of modern Europe; but where Britain fought alone, and where the counsels of her ministers, as well as the efforts of her champions could fully operate, she was uniformly victorious: if, therefore, war was necessary, as far as Mr. Pitt's talents could operate, it was successful: his plans animating the spirit, for invigorating the energy, and promoting the resources of the country, were unquestionably efficient. During his belligerent administration Britain was instigated to efforts which she had never before exhibited. After a contest which reduced the other contending nations to be dependents on France, Britain alone preserved her power and importance. One of the most alarming evils with which Mr. Pitt had to contend, was intestine disaffection, arising from the contagion of revolutionary principles: the means which were employed to repress such agitators, were in Britain completely successful, and sedition was restrained before it ripened into treason. In vigorously pursuing an object right within certain bounds, it is extremely difficult not to overstep the limits. The extravagant projects of the corresponding societies required vigilance and counteraction, but it appeared that both ministers and parliament misapprehended the case in supposing such machinations to be treason by the English law: to prohibit the daily utterance of inflammatory lectures, was certainly necessary in the state of the popular mind: but the laws for imposing the restrictions probably outwent the professed purpose. The watchfulness of government respecting Ireland, brought to a premature explosion the rebellion, that might have proved

tremendous had it been allowed time to be fully charged ; not satisfied with efficacious remedy to existing evil, Mr. Pitt extended his policy to preventives, and endeavoured by union to indentify the sentiments as well as the interest of the Irish and British. The union between Britain and Ireland, one of the most momentous measures of Mr. Pitt, even as to present effects, will probably, in future ages, be much more distinguished, when the consequences of British and Irish connexion are experimentally ascertained, as are now the consequences of English and Scottish.

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PERSONS who deny the necessity or prudence of the war, may probably little value the abilities which it has called forth, and if they give credit to Mr. Pitt for genius and energy, may deny him wisdom, and assert, that for the last eight years his great powers were employed in remedying evils which he might have before prevented : this, however, is a mere matter of opinion, that resolves itself into the original expediency of the war, combined with the opportunities of afterwards making peace. It is less the province of the historian to obtrude upon his readers his own judgment, than to furnish to them facts on which to ground theirs : without therefore presuming to solve so very contested a question, I cannot help declaring my thorough conviction, founded on an impartial and accurate view of his whole conduct, that Mr. Pitt in advising the commencement of the war, and at various stages of its continuance, acted conscientiously, and according to the best of his judgment ; and sought the benefit of his king and country, whose affairs he so long administered. Whether unbiassed posterity shall regard the war of 1793 as a necessary or unnecessary measure, peace in 1796 and in 1800 as attainable or not attainable, they must account Mr. Pitt, in the whole series of his administration, a statesman of great ability and strength of mind, who rendered momentous services to his country ; and must allow that never was the force of the British character tried by such dangers, or graced by more splendid achievements, than under the administration of William Pitt.

THIS celebrated statesman was supported by able and efficient colleagues ; of these the first for practical talents,

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readiness of useful plan, removal of obstacles, and expeditious despatch of important business, was Henry Dundas, supreme in devising and executing the most effectual schemes of national defence, and for the improvement of British India. For assiduity, research, information, foresight, and perseverance, lord Grenville was highly esteemed. Acuteness, ingenuity, and literary ability, with erudition and taste, constitute the principal features in the intellectual character of William Windham; while his prominent moral virtues are honour, justice, sincerity, and benevolence, though not without a tinge of enthusiasm; and probably this loyal and patriotic senator, like his prototype, Burke, was fitter for acquiring eminence by speculative genius, learning, and eloquence, than the arts of a practical statesman. A most respectable member of the late administration, was the earl Spencer, formerly known as a munificent patron and ardent votary of literature and the arts; but by his recent conduct destined to be transmitted to posterity, not only as proprietor of a most valuable collection of erudition, but as the minister who supplied the means for those heroic naval efforts, of which adequate recital will in future ages be the brightest ornament that can adorn a British library; and when some descendant of the present Spencer, in a hereditary reservoir of learning, shall dwell on the splendid exploits which Britain performed in the last years of the eighteenth century, with proud pleasure he may say, my ancestor presided in preparing the fleets with which a Jervis, a Duncan, and a Nelson, conquered.¹

MR. PITT was succeeded by Mr. Addington, who for many years had held the office of speaker of the house of commons, to the very great satisfaction of the house; lord Grenville by lord Hawkesbury, eldest son to the earl of Liverpool; and the other members by gentlemen or noblemen who had belonged to the party of the late administration, except the earl of St. Vincent, who was appointed first lord of the admiralty.

Alarming
illness of
the king.

IN the end of February, the nation was extremely alarmed by a fit of illness which seized the king, and tend-

¹ The fleet which obtained the splendid victory of Hove, was prepared under the auspices of lord Chatham.

ad if possible to manifest more strongly than ever the patriotic and affectionate loyalty of all ranks of his faithful subjects ; to demonstrate the tender and anxious love of his queen ; the affectionate and dutiful attachment of the royal children ; and to place in a most striking light, the filial piety, judgment, prudence, and delicacy of his eldest son and heir apparent. Less decided in nature, and much shorter in duration, than his former malady, the illness of the king did not severely afflict his majesty more than a fortnight ; though followed by a languor and lassitude which gradually giving way to returning vigour, in a few weeks more totally disappeared, and enabled the monarch to resume his executorial and legislative functions. Inquiries were proposed into the expedition to Ferrol and Cadiz, and also concerning the convention of El-Arish, which if observed by England, it was said, might have prevented the necessity of sending troops to Egypt : but all these motions were negatived by the usual very great majorities. The supplies additional to those which were voted before the meeting of the united parliament, included a loan of twenty-five millions, four hundred thousand pounds ; the taxes were numerous in detail, embracing various conveniences, and indeed by habit necessities of life ; especially tea and sugar ; one of the most severely felt by numerous classes, was the tax upon paper of ten per cent. additional duty. This article was before so extremely dear, from the war enhancing the price of materials, that the impost operating as a prohibition, very much diminished the productiveness of the tax.

In the first session of the united parliament, a peer of both realms, the humane and generous Moira, at length succeeded in procuring an act for relieving all such insolvent debtors as without fraud had incurred debts not exceeding 1500*l.* and demonstrated their willingness to do every justice in their power to their creditors, by a complete surrender of their effects. The general principle was to relieve the debtor from a confinement which could not promote the payment of the creditor, and to surrender to the creditor the debtor's funds ; from which only, and not from abridgment of his liberty, the creditor could receive any portion of his demand. Such being the scope of the

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1802.
Anxious
concern of
the public.

Inquiries
concerning
the last
campaign.

Supplies.
Loan.

Taxes.

Additional
impost on
paper ;

effects of.

Liberal
and wise
bill for the
relief of in-
solvent
debtors.

Farther
regulations
for encour-
aging the
importa-
tion of
wheat.

IMPORTS OF TEA

Bill. the clauses and provisions were framed with equal
tolerance and discrimination, to relieve misery, without
anti impunity to guilt. In the course of the session,
new regulations were made for farther encour-
agement of importation of wheat, American flour, and rice,
the growing pressure of scarcity. On the 1st
of the session of parliament terminated.

1800
1801
1802

1803

1804
1805
1806
1807

of 1808

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The king of Prussia promotes the northern confederacy—short sighted policy of an attempt to intimidate Britain.—Project of Britain respecting the northern powers—expedition to the Baltic under sir Hyde Parker and lord Nelson—dispositions and force of the northern confederates—our armament arrives in the Cattegat—passes the Sound—Parker resolves to attack the Danes—Nelson offers his services to conduct the attack—battle of Copenhagen—and victory of Nelson—the victorious admiral proposes an armistice—the prince of Denmark agrees—amicable negotiation.—Sweden.—Russia.—death of Paul—conduct of Alexander—his negotiation with Britain—amicable adjustment between Britain and the northern powers.—Proceedings of Bonaparte—Germany—Italy—naval campaign—enterprise of sir James Saumarez—threats of an invasion—destruction of the gunboats.—Egypt—the French still keep possession—Britain resolves to dispossess them—expedition under sir Ralph Abercrombie and lord Keith for that purpose—arrives at Rhodes—proceeds to Egypt—lands at Aboukir—battle and victory—storm the fortress—advance towards Alexandria—Menou projects a night attack—executes it, March 21st—surrounds the British forces—Bonaparte's Invincibles—British 42d regiment—character of that corps—surprised and encompassed—rally—cut their way through triple their number—exploits of other regiments—heroism of the whole army—death of sir Ralph Abercrombie—enemy repulsed with dreadful slaughter—never afterwards venture to face the British troops in the field—general Hutchinson succeeds to the command—operations of—Cairo surrenders to the British arms—capitulation of Alexandria, and the evacuation of Egypt, finally accomplish the purposes of the expedition.—Measures of the new ministry—they are disposed to peace—negotiations—progress of—believed about to terminate

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1801.

Battle of
Copen-
hagen,and victory
of Nelson.The victo-
rious admi-
ral pro-
poses an
armistice.

ships of the line, all the frigates, bombs, fireships, and all the small vessels; and on the same evening of the 1st of April, anchored off Draco Point, to make his disposition for the attack, and wait for the wind to the southward.^o In the morning of the 2d of April, lord Nelson made the signal for the squadron to weigh, and to engage the Danish fleet, consisting of six sail of the line, eleven floating batteries from twenty-six 24 pounders to eighteen 18 pounders, and one bombship, besides schooner gun vessels. These were supported by the crown islands, mounting eighty-eight cannon, and four sail of the line moored in the harbour's mouth, and the batteries on the island of Amack. The bomb ship and schooner gun vessels made their escape; the other seventeen sail, being the whole of the Danish line to the southward of the Crown islands, after a battle of four hours, were sunk, burnt, or taken. The result of the success was, that the remaining ships of the enemy, and the batteries of Copenhagen, were in the power of Nelson. The narrow passage which was the scene of their efforts, prevented admiral Parker's division from taking a share in the conflict.^p The damage suffered by Nelson's division was very considerable, and three of our ships, the Bellona, Russel, and Agamemnon, were aground, and exposed to the batteries of Crown islands. With his squadron generally victorious, and these ships in imminent danger, the ready genius of Nelson immediately formed a project which should at once give effect to the victory, and extricate the ships from their perilous situation. As soon as the cessation of Danish resistance enabled him to descend to his cabin, he wrote a letter to the prince royal, representing the expediency of allowing a flag of truce to pass; and stating, that if this were denied, he should be under the necessity of destroying the floating batteries, now in his power, while it would be impossible to save those brave men by whom they were defended.^q The note was addressed to "the brothers of

^o See gazette extraordinary, April 15th, 1801.

^p See London gazette extraordinary for April 15th, the letter of admiral Parker to the admiralty, dated on the 6th of that month, off Copenhagen roads.

^q I have been informed of a circumstance, attending the letter which admirably displays the self possession and coolness of our magnanimous hero. When the letter was finished, the secretary, from the urgency of the case, was going to put a wafer in it, to save the time that would have been occupied by sealing was.

by seizing the straits, and guarding them on both sides with tremendous batteries. The Danish navy consisted of twenty-six ships of the line, with a considerable number of frigates, bombketches and gunboats. The Swedes possessed eighteen ships of the line, with a proportionable number of smaller vessels. The Russians had forty-seven sail of the line in the north, neither so well equipped, manned, or officered, as the Danish and Swedish ships. The first force which the British had to meet, was the navy of Denmark.

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THE wind being contrary during part of their voyage, the British armament did not reach the Catte-gate, till the 25th ; and proceeding to the Sound, on the 27th, sir Hyde Parker wrote to the governor of Cronberg castle, which commands the entrance into the straits, desiring to be informed whether he had received orders to fire on the British fleet as it passed into the Sound ; and intimating that he would deem the firing of a gun, a declaration of war on the part of Denmark. The Danish governor replying, that he was instructed to oppose such an entrance,ⁿ on the 30th they entered they Sound. The admiral, together with the vice-admiral lord Nelson, and rear-admiral Graves, reconnoitred the formidable line of ships, radeaux, pontoons, galleys, fireships, and gunboats, stationed in the road of Copenhagen ; they were flanked and supported by batteries on the two islands called the Crowns, the largest of which batteries was mounted with from fifty to seventy pieces of cannon. They were again commanded by two ships of 70 guns, and a large frigate, in the inner road of Copenhagen ; and two 64 gun ships, without masts, were moored on the flat, on the starboard side of the entrance into the arsenal. The day after, the wind being southerly, the admiral again examined their position, and came to the resolution of attacking the Danes, from the southward. Lord Nelson having offered his service for conducting the attack, after having examined and buoyed the outer channel of the middle ground, proceeded with twelve

Our arma-
ment ar-
rives in the
Cattegate ;

passes the
Sound.

Parker re-
solves to
attack the
Danes.

Nelson of-
fers his ser-
vices to
conduct
the attack.

ⁿ See in London gazette extraordinary of April 15th, copies of four Let-
ters, No 1, 2, 3, 4, that passed between sir Hyde Parker and Stricker, com-
mander of Cronberg castle ; and transmitted by sir Hyde to the admiralty.

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1801.

and specific^u than at any former period. Such were the effects of seconding negotiation by formidable force. After the month of April, there was no actual hostilities; and the British fleet, having effected its purpose, returned to England.

Proceed-
ings of
Bonaparte.

DISAPPOINTED in his expectations of being seconded by a northern confederacy, the chief consul was engaged in concluding the treaty of Luneville, and arranging the internal affairs of Germany with the emperor and king of Prussia; he also settled Italy; prepared to invade Portugal; and attempted to amuse England with feints of invasion, to prevent the British from sending reinforcements to

Germany.

Egypt. After the treaty of Luneville was completed, a diet was held at Ratisbon, wherein the emperor received full powers, in concert with the courts of Berlin and

Italy.

Petersburg, to adjust the secularizations. In Italy, peace was concluded between the king of Naples and the French republic. The ecclesiastical territories were restored to the pope. If the emperor had agreed to the first proposals made by the chief consul at Marengo, Tuscany would have been permitted to remain governed by a prince of the house of Austria: but being invaded and conquered by the French troops, it became subject to the disposal of the republic: Bonaparte erecting it into a kingdom, conferred the government on the youngest branch of the house of Bourbon, under the denomination of the king of Etruria; a title which has probably been dormant ever since the time of Porsenna, who entered into a confederacy for the restoration of monarchy in republican Rome.

Naval cam-
paign.

BRITAIN, finding Portugal menaced with invasion on account of her fidelity, generously released her from engagements, adherence to which must involve her in ruin. She at the same time granted her a subsidy to defend herself until peace could be safely and honourably concluded. Unable to cope with such powerful enemies as Spain, assisted and headed by France, she prudently entered into a negotiation. Various British squadrons, both in the Atlantic and Mediterranean, watched the

^u See the respective conventions above quoted.

motions of the French and Spaniards ; but taught by the events of former years, the enemy's fleet prudently avoided encountering us in open seas. It was the object therefore of our commanders, to attempt the destruction of their force in harbour or near the shore. A very signal exploit of this sort was performed by sir James Samaurez : finding some French ships at anchor near Algeziras, he attacked them ; but the wind rising very strong from the sea, and the water being very shallow in that part of the bay, the Hannibal ran aground, and was taken. The British commander in these circumstances found it necessary for the present to desist. A few days after he attacked the Spanish ships, sent from Cadiz to convoy the prize from Algeziras : he took a seventy-four gun ship, and set fire to two first rates, which were consumed, and near two thousand four hundred men perished. The French continued to menace an invasion ; and were reported to have assembled great numbers of gunboats on their north coast. Lord Nelson undertook an expedition to Dunkirk and Boulogne where the greatest number were understood to be collected. In this undertaking, though he incurred considerable loss, yet he was on the whole successful.

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Enterprise
of sir James
Samaurez.

Threats of
an invasion.

THE splendid successes of the British arms during this war, had hitherto arisen principally from her navy. Her soldiers indeed had fought with as much valour and skill, as at the most brilliant periods of her military history ; and in the campaigns of 1793, 1794, and 1799, efforts of heroism had been exhibited, which fully equalled the glorious eras of Blenheim, Ramilies, and Quebec ; but the event was very different. In the recent war, our champions were encumbered, not assisted by allies ; where we acted alone, we were victorious : in concert we were not vanquished, but were compelled to relinquish our objects. The history now comes to exploits and achievements of the British army, which have never been surpassed in the annals of war.

Destruction
of the
gunboats.

THE death of Kleber, and the succession of Menou to the command, prevented the evacuation of Egypt. The French general resolved to violate the treaty, which had been concluded by his predecessor, and actually kept possession of the country, which it had been stipulated to

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The
French
still keep
possession.

Britain
resolves to
dispossess
them.

Expedition
of sir
Ralph
Abercrom-
bie and
lord Keith,
for that
purpose.

abandon. Justifiable reasons for transgression of compact are not to be found ; but the motives for a deviation from good faith, were easily discovered. Egypt was well known to be a favourite object with Bonaparte, and that he attached much more importance to it, than the directorial government. Kleber had concluded the convention of El Arish before intelligence had arrived that Bonaparte was supreme magistrate, with uncontrolled power ; and was no sooner informed of the elevation of the general, than he began to make dispositions for retaining possession of Egypt. The misunderstanding with the British government respecting the capitulation, allowed him a pretext for repossessing strong holds. The British ministers, agreeably to the good faith of the nation, ratified the treaty as soon as they were assured that it had been actually concluded. The negotiation had been renewed, as we have seen, but the assassination of Kleber intervened before any decisive measure was effected. Besides the views of Bonaparte, the wishes of Menou himself were eager for retaining Egypt : he had declared himself a mussulman, married an Egyptian lady, was desirous of erecting Egypt into a colony, and extremely hostile to all who proposed to return to France. Some asserted, that he even intended to render Egypt an independent principality, of which he himself might be the head. This opinion is not very probable ; because, without the protection of France, he could have no reasonable hopes of being able to maintain his ground ; and there are no proofs that he ever had such an object in contemplation. But whatever might be his purpose in keeping possession of Egypt, it was an end of the first importance to the British government, to drive the French enemy from a settlement which was in itself advantageous and productive ; and might pave the way for enabling them to annoy British India. To achieve such a momentous purpose, was the ultimate object of the expedition, in which sir Ralph Abercrombie commanded the army, and lord Keith the fleet. After our armament had withdrawn from Cadiz, in October 1800, they entered the Mediterranean, and during some time anchored in the bay of Tetuan. On the 3d of November, part of the fleet sailed for Minorca, and the remainder, with sir

Ralph Abercrombie, to Malta, where it arrived on the 30th, and was joined by lord Keith, with the other division, on the 14th of December. At Malta, the troops disembarked, while the ships were cleaning: the abundance of fresh provisions, the comforts of the beautiful city of la Valette, and the luxuriance of the scenery, soon reanimated the troops, and rendered them completely fit for service. On the 20th and 21st, the first and second division sailed from Malta, and instead of proceeding directly to Egypt, bent their course to Asia Minor, and anchored in Marmorice bay, between the continent and the island of Rhodes. The object of this diagonal movement was to be assured of the military cooperation of the Turks, and also their assistance in furnishing horses, gunboats, and other necessary articles :^x here also they procured supplies of fresh provisions. During the month of January, and a considerable part of February, the expedition continued in this station, and every endeavour was employed to learn the nature and local circumstances of the country, the force and disposition of the enemy. On the first subject, the only officer that could give them any information was, sir Sidney Smith ; the coasts that commander had seen, surveyed with his usual accuracy, and comprehended with his usual ability ; but to the interior parts of the country his knowledge did not extend. Captain Boyle, who had been wrecked off Damietta, and, contrary to the usages of war, was made a prisoner, had omitted no opportunity of learning the number, condition, and situation of the French army ; but it appears the intelligence actually received by the British commanders, from such confined sources, was extremely imperfect, and the power of the enemy was much greater than they had any reason to apprehend. The French force which now possessed Egypt, it was afterwards found, amounted to thirty thousand, besides natives, who were reckoned about fifteen thousand more. The Gallic troops were habituated to, the country, elated with success, inured to danger, aware of the importance of Egypt to their government, determined to defend the possession of it, and encou-

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Arrive at
Marmo-
rice.

^x Sir Robert Wilson, p. 3.

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raged in this determination, no less by the assurance of speedily receiving effectual succours, than by the promise of reward, and the love of glory. The English army that was to dispossess this formidable force, amounted to fifteen thousand, of whom from sickness only twelve thousand were effective; and thus twelve thousand troops, totally unacquainted with the country, and unused to the climate, were to attack what thirty thousand of the best troops of the continent of Europe, thoroughly conversant in all the local advantages, and familiarised to the climate, were to defend. Such was the relative state of the parties: let us now follow them to their conduct in that state.

Proceed to
Egypt.

ON the 23d of February, the fleet weighed anchor; the number of vessels of every kind amounted to about a hundred and seventy-five sail; and, says the historian of the expedition, "a nobler sight could not be beheld. The greatness of the armament, the gaiety of the brave men on board, exciting reflections on the awful destiny of the expedition, not only as relating to those immediately acting in it, but as affecting the dearest interests of Great Britain, afforded a scene for contemplation, in the highest degree gratifying and impressive." The armament steered a southern course: on the 1st of March the leading frigate discovered land, which proved to be the coast near Arabs Tower; and on the next morning the whole fleet moored in Aboukir bay, and the men of war occupied the very ground on which had been fought the battle of Nelson.

Attempt to
land at
Aboukir.

THE coast from Aboukir bay round to the Nile presented an appearance at once picturesque, striking, and formidable. The sea full of shoals rendered disembarkation extremely difficult, and even dangerous, though it should not be interrupted by an enemy. The shore and the adjacent country were covered with sand hills; among these the French were disposed in very great numbers and force, with batteries in front; towards the Nile to the left extremity of the British; and on our right along the promontory of Aboukir. The batteries and sand hills

afforded to the artillery and musketry such positions as could dreadfully annoy our troops in their attempt to land, and be secure themselves: while they fired on our soldiers, our ships could not return the fire, because thereby they must bear upon their friends more than upon their foes. Tremendous as were these obstacles to landing, they served only to rouse the energy of British heroism: but for some days the extreme roughness of the surf prevented an attempt to disembark. On the 8th of March, the weather being less boisterous, it was resolved on that day to effect a landing. Early in the morning, the first division of the army, consisting of the reserve under the orders of major general Moore; the brigade of guards under major general Ludlow; and part of the 1st brigade, composed of the royals, 1st battalion of the 54th, and two hundred of the 2d battalion; the whole amounting to about five thousand five hundred men, under the command of major general Coote, assembled in the boats; the remainder of the 1st and 2d brigade being put into ships close to the shore, that a support might be quickly given after the first landing was effected.² At nine o'clock the signal was made for the boats to advance, and the troops proceeded towards the shore. The French, posted among the sand hills, and forming the concave arch of a circle, looked with wonder at the preparation; and, as they afterwards confessed, did not believe such an adventurous attempt could be made: but when they saw the boats moving with extraordinary rapidity, they were convinced that the British were in earnest, and they immediately poured from the heights, and Aboukir castle, all the shot and grape shot that their musketry and artillery could issue: the effect was tremendous; in a situation in which they could not return the fire, and seeing their comrades fall about them, under these fell messengers of multiplied death, instead of being dismayed, our heroic soldiers were the more indignantly eager to reach the shore, where, bringing arm to arm of Briton against Frenchman, they knew they would soon avenge their fellow countrymen. The boats arrived at the destined point: springing on

Battle and
victory.

² General Abercrombie's Letter, dated March 16th, 1801, in the London Gazette of May 9th; see Robert Wilson, page 12.

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land, in the face of cannon, our champions formed on the beach, and advanced in a line, which, in the deep sands, piles of sand hills, and in the face of the enemy, was as well observed as if they had been exercising on a parade.^a Marching coolly and steadily up to the foe, they were enabled to use the surest instrument of victory to British courage, supported by British muscular strength—the bayonet. And now the artillery from our ships could operate against the batteries of Aboukir, without exposing our soldiers to danger. The French made a stand worthy of their national heroism: but when British sailors can use their cannon, and British soldiers their bayonets, the most valiant Frenchmen are destined to yield. In the conflict between such combatants, the battle was obstinate and bloody: but our heroes prevailed. The French found they had more formidable foes to encounter than even those whom they had met at Lodi and Arcola; and that a British handful at Acre had merely given a specimen of what they might expect from a British army.

THE country in which this astonishing landing was effected, is an oblong peninsula; having on the east a branch of the Nile; on the north the ocean; on the south the canal of Alexandria, called by the French lake Maadie; and on the west, situated on the isthmus, the city of Alexandria. The peninsula was from two to three miles in width, from the sea to the canal: from the vanguard of the army, now facing the west, to Alexandria, the space was about sixteen miles, but full of ruins, and other posts of very strong defence. On the right was the sea, with the British fleet at anchor in the bay; behind was the Nile; on the left the canal; and in front sand hills, terminated by the metropolis, flanked by its sublimely towering Pharos.

On the 9th of March the army advanced to the westward, leaving two regiments to blockade Aboukir, which refused to surrender. The 10th and 11th were employed in reconnoitring the enemy, bringing stores from the

^a a Lieutenant colonel James Stewart, of the 42d regiment, told me he had never seen the ranks more exactly dressed, or a better and more harmonious line on a review day, than was here formed and maintained in the face of so many obstacles and dangers. That gentleman himself, with colonel Dickson, the first lieutenant colonel, were wounded in this engagement.

ships, and forming hospitals and depots. On the 12th some partial skirmishes took place, but with no material consequences. The French army was posted on a ridge of heights, about four miles from Alexandria; the British resolved to attack them in this position: and on the 13th commenced the assault, by the left of our army, hoping to turn the right flank of their antagonists. The enemy made a very vigorous resistance, and by their cavalry and artillery cut off a great number of our men, and prevented us from attacking them in flank; but the British, forming in two lines, made such a charge in the front, as compelled them to retire to the heights, before Alexandria. Ardent to pursue their victory, the gallant British pushed on to force the strong position of the enemy; but the French artillery played with such tremendous effect, that it was found prudent to desist; and the loss of our troops in this arduous enterprise was very considerable. The detachment that was employed in the siege of Aboukir proceeded in its operations, and on the 17th day that fortress surrendered. The army was meanwhile employed in getting their heavy cannon on shore, and procuring supplies of water and provisions. Menou was now arrived from Cairo, and the whole force of the French was concentrated at Alexandria. By his memorable defence of Acre, sir Sidney Smith had obtained very great influence among the Arabs, who communicated to him every information which they deemed important. On the evening of the 20th, an Arab chief sent a letter to this commander, acquainting him that general Menou was arrived, and intended the next morning to attack the British camp. Sir Sidney believed the intelligence:^b the commanders did not think it probable that such an attempt would be made: but the information proved authentic.

THE British army, at this time was encamped across the peninsula, about four miles from Alexandria; the right consisted of various regiments, in front of which, on the extremity was the 28th; in a redoubt the 42d to the left, a little more advanced,^c with Stewart's foreign regiment on the left in front; immediately behind, the 28th, the 23d,

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Battle of
the 13th of
March.

Menou
projects a
night at-
tack.

^b Sir Robert Wilson, p. 29.

^c See Sir Robert Wilson's plan of the Battle of the 21st.

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Battle of
the 21st.

and 58th, and about five other regiments farther back. Such was the plan of our right division: between which and the left there intervened a considerable space. Between the right of the British and the beach there was a narrow tract of ground; in daylight covered by the British frigates and gunboats that were nearest the shore, but at night, without such a collateral defence. Menou proposed to turn the right flank of our right division on the one hand, and attack the left flank of the same division on the other, so as to surround that part of the army, and cut it off from the support of the left: to facilitate the intended assault on the right, the French made a feint on the other division. At half past three in the morning, some musketry was heard on the extremity of the left; and when anxious attention was turned to that quarter, loud shouts were heard on the right: a roar of musketry succeeded, and the action became general. The enemy had turned our right flank, and the 28th, from its position, bore the first brunt of the battle, and maintained their ground against unequal numbers with the intrepid heroism of British soldiers. The 58th and 23d, which were behind the 28th, with equal intrepidity, marched to its

British 42d
regiment.

Bona-
parte's In-
vincibles.

Surprised
and en-
compassed.

assistance, but the numbers of the French were extremely great. Colonel Alexander Stewart marched the 42d to support their fellow soldiers, and became engaged with a corps, styled by the French, INVINCIBLES (and till that morning they had deserved the name;) THE HIGHLANDERS COMPLETELY VANQUISHED THE INVINCIBLES, and took their standard; but while pursuing their victory, a body of cavalry coming round; charged them in the rear, while a fresh column marched up to them in front. In this double danger, Stewart^d made every disposition that the exigency could admit; and the highlanders at the same time fought in front, flank, and rear. The company of major Robert Bisset was first engaged with the French cavalry; and, after a most intrepid

^d Alexander Stewart, first major of the regiment, and then commander: Dickson, and James Stewart, the two lieutenant colonels, having been wounded on the 8th. Alexander Stewart, though but little turned of forty, has been twenty-eight years an officer in that regiment: he is the eldest son of a very respectable gentleman, Robert Stewart, esq. of Clochfollidgh, in the county of Perth. James, his younger brother, was on this expedition, captain of lord Keith's ship.

resistance, their commander being first wounded with a pistol, and afterwards mortally with a sabre, a great part of the company was cut to pieces; and, combatting quadruple their number, the whole corps performed the most splendid efforts of prowess worthy of their heroic character so long earned and uniformly maintained; but they were oppressed by numbers, and in very imminent dangers: yet, though broken, the gallant band was not defeated: individually its heroes resisted, and the conduct of each man exalted the renown of the regiment.^c—But why, in recounting the extraordinary feats of British heroism, should we dwell on the achievements of one part: fighting for their king and country, every column, Lowland, English, and Irish, had the hearts and hands of Royal Highlanders. Nor were the efforts of the army, at this critical juncture, confined to the native subjects of his majesty: foreign troops displayed equal valour, and gave an important turn to the contest. The 42d and 28th were almost overpowered, when general Stewart with the foreign brigade, consisting of three regiments, advanced to their assistance, and poured in such a heavy and well directed fire, that nothing could withstand it: the enemy fled in confusion. Though the battle was hottest in the front division of the right wing, yet the attack of the enemy extended to the rear, and part of the left was engaged: but the valour of our troops was every where proportionate to the dangers by which it was assailed. Next to the regiments that have been already mentioned, the 40th, 44th, 30th, and Queen's, appear to have been chiefly exposed in the battle. Soon after daybreak, the French were repulsed on every side. A fresh column attempted to turn the right flank of the guards, who were in the right extremity of the left wing, but the steady and vigorous fire of those troops soon compelled the enemy to fly, and the repulse was complete.

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Heroism
of the
whole
army.

Enemy re-
pulsed
with great
slaughter.

DURING the charge of cavalry, the veteran hero, sir Ralph Abercrombie, received his mortal wound, On the first alarm he had hastened to the scene of combat; and

^c Sir Robert Wilson, p. 32.

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Death of
sir Ralph
Abercrom-
bie.

having despatched his aides-du-camp with orders to the different brigades, he was alone when some French dragoons attacked him, threw him from his horse, and attempted to cut him down with a sword; the gallant old man sprang up to defend himself, and wrested the sword from his antagonist, who was immediately bayoneted by a soldier of the 42d: but our general himself had received wounds, which at the time he little regarded, and he kept the field, giving his orders with his usual coolness and intrepidity. When the flight of the enemy rendered exertion no longer necessary, his spirit yielded to nature, he became faint, and was placed in a hammock. Hailed on every side by the blessings of his soldiers, he was carried to a boat, and conveyed on board lord Keith's ship; and after languishing for several days, died on the 28th.

SIR RALPH ABERCROMBIE was one of the most distinguished generals in the British service. His commands were important, and uniformly successful; the means which he employed were indeed the most efficacious for ensuring victory. To his officers and soldiers he united every practicable and useful indulgence, with the strictest discipline and the most rigid exaction of professional duty. He was beloved and revered by the army, and they went on with the assurance of victory when he was at their head. In private life, he was as amiable and estimable as in public meritorious and admirable. To his family,^f friends, and connexions, of every rank and degree, he was endeared by the habitual practice of all the relative and social duties, the agreeableness of his manners, the warmth and tenderness of his affections, the honour and integrity of his conduct: but to use the words of an illustrious judge;^g "it is some consolation to those who tenderly loved him, that, as his life was honourable, so was his death glorious: his memory will be recorded in the annals of his country, will be sacred to every British

^f Sir Ralph Abercrombie was the representative of the very ancient and respectable family of Tulibodie, in the county of Clackmannan; he married miss Menzies, of the family of Castle Menzies, and cousin german to sir Robert Menzies, head of that name and house. As a testimony of his majesty's regard, his widow has been created a baroness, the honours to descend to their son and heir.

^g See general Hutchinson's letter to Mr. Dundas, dated the 5th of April 1801, and inserted in the gazette extraordinary of the 11th of May.

“soldier, and embalmed in the recollection of a grateful posterity.” Of officers of rank, major general Moore was wounded in the head, but not dangerously; brigadier general Oakes was dangerously wounded; colonel Paget, of the heroic 28th, was wounded at the first onset, but less severely than general Moore. The field officers killed were, lieutenant colonel David Ogilvy,^h of the 44th; lieutenant colonel Peter Dutens,ⁱ of one of the foreign regiments; and major Robert Bisset.^k The other officers killed and wounded were not numerous, but in their respective ranks also merited and earned high commendation.

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As every circumstance belonging to this momentous and glorious day must be interesting to readers, it may not be deemed improper to say a few words on a subject which has greatly engaged the public attention: the capture, loss, and recapture, of the invincible standard. Of the various statements that have been presented concerning this trophy, the following, admitted by sir Robert Wilson, is in itself the most probable, reconciles different testimonies, and shows that evidence which has been represented as contrary, is merely a variety of parts which easily harmonizes into one whole. Major Stirling, of the 42d, took the standard,^l just as they had marched to the relief of the 28th, delivered it to serjeant Sinclair, and directed him to retire to the rear. By the surrounding cavalry, Sinclair was wounded, and lost the standard:^m here ends the evidence of the capture and loss. Anthony Lutz, a private of the Minorca regiment, brought the standard to the headquarters; and, in addition to the fact

Invincible
standard.

^h An officer of very high character, whom I knew from a boy; he was my class fellow at St. Andrew's college, with captain Charles Campbell, who twenty-two years before (as I mentioned in the account of the campaign 1779,) fell in an earlier stage of the same honourable course. Colonel Ogilvy was the son of the late sir John Ogilvy, head of a very ancient and honourable family in the county of Angus, and brother to the present sir Walter.

ⁱ Dutens was in high estimation for enterprise, and adventurous boldness and generosity, and was a distinguished favourite with the officers and soldiers.

^k Of my friend and relation, major Bisset, his brother officers and soldiers of the 42d, best attest the merits by their esteem and regret.

^l See narrative (by authority) of the movements of the 42d, on the 21st of March, and signed A. Stewart, major and lieutenant colonel of the 42d R. H. regiment; and James Stirling, major and lieutenant colonel of the 42d R. H. regiment.

^m In Sinclair himself, in his declaration before the Highland Society, testified, that from his wound he fell into a swoon; and before he recovered, the standard was gone.

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of his having it in his possession, adduced two witnesses to prove that he had taken it from the French: and such is the testimony of the recapture. The result of the whole evidence is, that major Stirling took the standard, and delivered it to Sinclair; who being wounded, and in a state of insensibility, lost the same; and that it was retaken by Anthony Lutz. Taking no part in the dispute, the historian has only to express his wish, that future narrators of British wars may ever have to celebrate such valour as was exhibited by the 42d and foreign regiments, the captors and recaptors of a standard that was termed invincible till it was borne against the troops of Britain.

General Hutchinson succeeded to the supreme command, under circumstances the most trying and difficult.

Great difficulties that still remained in the enterprise.

Plan of operations.

On the death of general Abercrombie, Hutchinson succeeded to the supreme command, under circumstances the most trying and difficult. The victories of the 8th, 13th, and 21st, must naturally impress many with an idea, that French Egypt was subdued, and that nothing remained but to take possession of the conquest: such is the opinion all those would form, who regard fighting as the only arduous of a soldier. The British had impaired the force of the enemy, but still they were much more numerous than the invading army; and our troops had to contend against foes, which military heroism often encounter in vain: they had to penetrate an unknown country; to traverse trackless deserts; to wade through burning sands, exposed to the rays of the scorching sun, fast approaching to vertical heat; they had to meet with difficulties unessayed in the history of British warfare,—difficulties so numerous and complicated, as to exceed any that had been experienced among the mountains of Hindostan, or the woods of St. Domingo: to undergo such hardships required not only British prowess, but magnanimity, and the moral energy of professional duty. To animate and invigorate these principles, was the first and grand object of the new general. To attack Alexandria was at present impracticable; since it was so strongly fortified that the exertions must reduce his army; and even success in that enterprise tend ultimately to defeat the object of the expedition. Hutchinson, therefore, resolved to penetrate into the country, reduce Lower Egypt, and make his way to Cairo; thence that Alexandria would be insulated, and if

not taken by storm compelled to capitulate. Completely to debar the French army from communications with the interior country, he cut the canal of Alexandria, to let the sea into the lake Marcotis, and thus render the capital an island. Having effected this change Hutchinson proceeded in his plan of reducing Lower Egypt; and while lord Keith commanded the coast to intercept communications between France and her troops, sir Sidney Smith headed a squadron of gunboats that sailed up the Nile to cooperate with the army.

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IN exhibiting pursuits requiring patience, constancy, and fortitude, more frequently than active prowess, there is less room for minute description of operation than general exhibition of object, conduct, progress, and result. In proposing to reduce Egypt, on both sides of the Nile up to Cairo, one purpose of Hutchinson was, to facilitate the way for a junction of troops from India, that were expected soon to reach Suez, so that not only advances were necessary for the general objects of the expedition, but such advances as would secure the route of the expected reinforcements: it was requisite, therefore, to obtain a footing in the east as well as the west of Egypt, and with this view our general proceeded. By the 19th of April, forts Julien and Rosetta, on the left bank of the river, were captured; and being now joined by a considerable number of Turks, they proceeded up the banks to Rhamanich, which was at once a magazine of provisions to the enemy, and commanded the entrance into the Delta: here the French made a stand, but were vanquished, and retreated towards Cairo; and the British troops took possession of the town. This was a very important stage in our progress, since we thereby cut off the communication between Menou in Alexandria, and Belliard the French general in Upper Egypt; commanded the Delta, and had the means of intercepting the convoys of provisions for the enemy. On the 11th of May, the army continued its march up the river, in a fine country. Accustomed to Mahomedan and French depredators, the people regarded the new comers at first with dread, but afterwards with wonder when they found that not a single soldier of the

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British committed the slightest pillage;ⁿ and at last with gratitude hailed them as their deliverers from a plundering banditti. The only gratuitous contribution which our champions required was water, this beverage with gladdened eagerness the natives brought, and readily supplied with every provision in their power, heroes, who in the midst of war and scanty stores, strictly observed the principles of justice, and showed that British troops are soldiers, not robbers. On the 15th of May, intelligence was received that Belliard was in full march from Cairo towards the British army: Hutchinson resolved to anticipate the expected attack. On the 16th the Turks commenced the onset, the French took post in a wood of date trees which they maintained for three hours, but at length were compelled to retreat.^o These successes encouraged great numbers of Arabs to join the British army, and while they were making such progress on the left bank of the Nile, they also made advances in the Delta, and took a very valuable convoy on the canal of Menouf,^p which joins the Rosetta to the Damietta branch of the river. Being secure on both sides, our army advanced up the bank, but were obliged to traverse deserts that came down to the very edge of the Nile; and at the summer solstice, under a vertical sun, our soldiers were digging their way through the burning sands of Africa; but their constancy and resolution, in encountering the soil and climate, were equal to their heroic courage, in forcing the sabres and cannon of hostile men. At length they crossed the wilderness, the pyramids of Egypt presented themselves to their astonished view, and the difficulties of nature which they had just surmounted, were absorbed in their wonder at the stupendous monuments of art which they beheld. At Gizeh the camp was placed, and dispositions were made for investing Cairo from both sides of the Nile; but the French garrison, conscious of their inability to withstand the efforts of the British, offered to capitulate. A convention^q was accordingly concluded on the 27th of

ⁿ See sir Robert Wilson, p. 99. Every officer with whom I have conversed, agrees in this account so singularly honourable to British soldiers.

^o See in London gazette extraordinary, letter of major Holloway, dated the 20th of May.

^p See Ibid. letter of general Hutchinson to lord Hobart, dated June 1st.

^q State Papers, June 17th, 1802.

June, by which it was agreed that the French were to be conveyed to their ports in the Mediterranean, with their arms, artillery, baggage, and effects, within fifty days from the date of the ratification; men of letters and naturalists were permitted to retain their papers and collections; an exoneration was granted to such of the people as had adhered to the cause of France; and it was stipulated, that Menou might avail himself of these conditions, for the surrender of Alexandria, provided his acceptance of them were notified to the general commanding before that city, within ten days of the date of the communication being made. And thus the efforts of our commander and army, surmounting very arduous obstacles, effected a momentous part of their purpose; and it depended upon Menou, whether the whole was not compassed by the convention of Cairo. A few days after this treaty, the army from India arrived on the banks of the Nile, and it was extremely mortifying to our brave troops from the east, that after tasting so deeply of the toils and hardships of war, fortune did not permit them to participate on this occasion in its glories.

MENOU was far from approving of the article in the capitulation of Cairo, by which he might have been included in the convention. He had long expected a reinforcement, which was under the convoy of admiral Gantheaume, and that commander had spared no diligence to reach Alexandria; but the vigilance and ability^r of lord Keith rendered his approach impracticable: after having advanced within thirty leagues of the coast, being descried by the English fleet, he departed with all possible expedition; so that Menou had only the garrison with which in April he had been inclosed in Alexandria.

^r Naval heroism and ability appears to be hereditary in the family of Elphinstone. Captain Charles Elphinstone Flemyng, son to lord Elphinstone, the elder brother of lord Keith, though several years under thirty, distinguished himself throughout the war; but especially in 1797, in the West Indies, where commanding a frigate, he cut out several Spanish ships from a harbour, under the cover of batteries, and in the face of frigates. Captain Charles Elphinstone, son to William, India director, second brother of lord Keith, several years younger than his cousin, has also acquired high reputation; and captain Charles Adam, (son to a sister of lord Keith and to Mr. Adam, whom this history has repeatedly mentioned), only twenty-three years of age, in the Sybil frigate, at the close of the war, captured the French Chipone, of much superior force, and terminated hostilities by an achievement as brilliant as any performed by a single ship during the arduous contest.

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MEANWHILE the British forces were at Cairo, and had time to survey the famed capital of Saracenic Egypt, which was found to be totally different from what it had been reported by travellers, and very unlike the magnificence which has so often delighted the reader of the Arabian Nights Entertainments.^a The manners and customs of the people, however, were found to be much more similar, and it is not difficult to account for either the diversity or resemblance. The vicissitudes of war, and political revolutions, may dissipate or transform cities; but the Mahomedan character and manners are stationary and uniform: topographical and statistical reports of Egypt, however, come not within the plan of the history.

INFORMED that Menou would not accede to the capitulation, Hutchinson prepared to proceed against Alexandria. The French were sent, under the escort of general Moore, to Rosetta; and as quickly as possible embarked for Europe. In the beginning of August, Hutchinson being now on the coast, made dispositions for besieging Alexandria. On the 15th, he invested that city, on the eastern and western front; while lord Keith^t cooperated from the north with his fleet, and on the south with the gunboats that were assembled in lake Mareotis: Alexandria was thus completely surrounded. On the 21st, the British fleet forced its way into the great harbour. On the 22d, general Coote, who commanded the western detachment, protected by the gunboats, in the Mareotis on the right, and by light vessels belonging to the fleet on the left, moved forward near the walls of the town. On the east, so recently the scene of British heroism, Hutchinson with the main army pressed.^u By the 26th, Menou, finding resistance totally hopeless, offered to capitulate; and received the same terms which had been granted to Belliard at Cairo. Such was the issue of Bonaparte's expedition to Egypt: there, as in all their undertakings during the last war, the French prospered until they en-

Capture of
Alexan-
dria, and
expulsion
of the
French
from
Egypt.

^a Sir Robert Wilson informs us, that Mr. Hammer procured in Cairo a complete edition of the Arabian Nights Entertainments, in Arabic manuscript, containing many more stories than have as yet been published, and which he means to translate; see p. 154.

^t See letter of lord Keith, dated the 27th of August, and inserted in the London gazette of the 17th of November; and sir Robert Wilson, from p. 137 to 206.

^u See Robert Wilson, p. 187.

countered the forces of Britain : there Bonaparte learned, that in vain he might project schemes of maritime and commercial conquest, when opposed by the naval and military heroes of Britain. All the mighty preparations and boasted achievements of four years in pursuit of the favourite object of the chief consul, perished without leaving a wreck behind. The whole, and every part of this expedition, displayed the British character in its manifold excellencies. Adventurous courage guided by wisdom, united with patience and magnanimous constancy, and were all inspired by patriotism and loyalty, and enhanced by justice. Such were the qualities that rendered Britain triumphant in the signally glorious campaign of Egypt, in such Britain may always confide, and such let her enemies dread. If *ambitious pride* should overlook more remote events, when she seeks war with Britain, let her REMEMBER EGYPT.

CONCLUSION.

THE new ministers of England, following the example of their predecessors, uniformly declared themselves desirous of peace, whenever it should be attainable with security, and a negotiation was opened with M. Otto. The chief difficulty arose from Egypt, which Bonaparte was resolved if possible to retain ; and the British government was determined to dispossess the French of a settlement which would prove so injurious to the interests of England. That difficulty however lessened, as intelligence was received of the progress of our arms. Both parties wisely observed the strictest secrecy concerning the overtures, the advances, and the obstacles : the hopes of the people of Britain and France had been extremely sanguine in summer, but in autumn they began to fear that the reciprocal discussions were not likely to terminate in pacification. Various circumstances convinced the public that the crisis was fast approaching, and it was generally suspected that a few days would announce the continuance of war. With such anticipations September closed ; and never were hopes of immediate peace more distant throughout London, than during

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the greater part of the 1st of October. Such were the opinions that prevailed, when the next day opened with intelligence, that peace was concluded between Great Britain and the French republic. The tidings spread through the country a joy that was natural and just, on the supposition that the peace would be secure and permanent; and that supposition was founded in an idea that the chief consul of France would regard the real interest and welfare of the people, and would not provoke dismissal from his office, by rendering it the instrument of national misery. The reasoning was fair; the hopes of durable tranquillity were founded on probable grounds, and the rejoicings were general.* They were not however universal, as from the situation and character of the chief consul, a small number augured inveterate hostility to Britain.

THE objects which the former ministers had professed to seek by war, and in the successive negotiations, were, the security of Britain, restitution to her allies, and the independence of Europe. From the events of the war, and the separate treaties which had been concluded by her first confederates, it was impracticable for Britain to provide for their independence any farther than they chose to co-operate themselves. Restitution to allies was become a much narrower proposition than before, because allies were so few: it now comprehended only demands for the evacuation of Egypt;⁷ and for the restoration of places which were taken from the queen of Portugal. The conquests of France had been immense, but ceded by their former possessors, could not with any hopes of success be reclaimed from her by Britain; and all the restitution which we sought to our allies was obtained. Respecting Britain herself, ministers did not think it necessary to insist on retaining all the acquisitions of our valour: we did not fight to subdue the possessions of others, but to

x I must acknowledge that I was one who rejoiced at the peace. I thought it would be lasting, because it was the interest of France, and the chief consul himself, that it should be permanent; and Bonaparte had repeatedly declared his regret that the two first nations in the world should waste their resources and power in enmity.

y The news of the capture of Alexandria, as our readers will recollect, had not reached Britain; though by many it was supposed to have reached the chief consul; and that he readily consented to evacuate a country from which he knew his troops had been driven by force.

secure ourselves. We agreed to restore all our acquisitions, except the island of Trinidad, and the Dutch possessions in the island of Ceylon. The cape of Good Hope was to be opened to both parties : and the island of Malta was to be evacuated by Britain, but to be placed on such a footing as to render it totally independent of France.^z As a mere question of terms and equivalents, it may be doubted whether we might not have commanded greater extent of territory, if acquisition had been our object ; but acquisition was an object which the present, like the former ministry, uniformly disclaimed ; and the retention of a plantation more or less was held to be a very inadequate ground for incurring the expense and loss of another campaign. The preliminaries, signed at London on the 1st of October, were ratified by the chief consul on the 7th ; and so terminated the memorable war between Great Britain and the French republic.

THE treaty of Amiens opened new subjects of discussion, which for the reasons mentioned in the preface, appear to me to belong more properly to a subsequent period, which shall embrace the history and progress of that pacification ; the state and sentiments of the two countries, and of other nations during the peace ; the rise and progress of the rupture, with the events which may ensue until hostilities be brought to a permanent conclusion. The most important object which Britain ascertained at the termination of the late war, was her own security : for this valuable blessing under Providence, she was indebted to her own extraordinary efforts during the whole of the contest, but especially since the rupture of the first negotiation at Paris. She had proved, even beyond her own exertions in former times, that she was superior to the whole naval world combined against her in war. Every attempt to disturb her rights, to invade her dominions, either directly or indirectly to impair the sources of her commercial prosperity and political greatness, have recoiled on the authors : never had her commerce been so flourishing, or her power so resistless, as during the most arduous war which her history has to

z See State Papers, October 1, 1801.

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record. Threatened, and actual rebellion, only demonstrated paramount loyalty and patriotism: attempts on her finances,^a displayed, beyond former conception, the extent of her resources; leaving their bounds far beyond calculation; resources exhaustless, because flowing from minds which afford perennial supply: menaced invasion served only to show the number and force of her voluntary defenders. Every means that fertile genius could devise, or gigantic power execute, was essayed against our country: if she could have been subdued by any human effort, in the late arduous contest she must have fallen: the stupendous exertions that were employed against Britain, but employed in vain, demonstrate her invincible. **HERE RESTS OUR SECURITY, IN THE MANIFESTATION OF RESOURCES NOT TO BE EXHAUSTED, A SPIRIT NOT TO BE BROKEN, AND A FORCE NOT TO BE SUBDUED: OUR SECURITY IS INVULNERABLE WHILE WE CONTINUE WHAT WE HAVE BEEN, AND ARE TRUE TO OURSELVES.**

^a From the account presented to the house of commons, it appears that the national income amounts to the wonderful sum of sixty-three millions two hundred and forty-five thousand five hundred and fifty-nine pounds four shillings and eight-pence, exceeding the expenditure by six hundred and seventy thousand and eighty pounds six and eight-pence, besides the annual million. From the same vouchers it appears, that so rapid has been the operation of Mr. Pitt's plan for the reduction of the national debt, that in sixteen years and a half, sixty-seven millions two hundred and fifty-five thousand nine hundred and fifteen pounds have been paid off.—See No. 6, Accounts respecting the Public Funded Debt, p. 8. column second.

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[N. B. *The Roman Numerals direct to the Volume, and the Figures to the Page.*]

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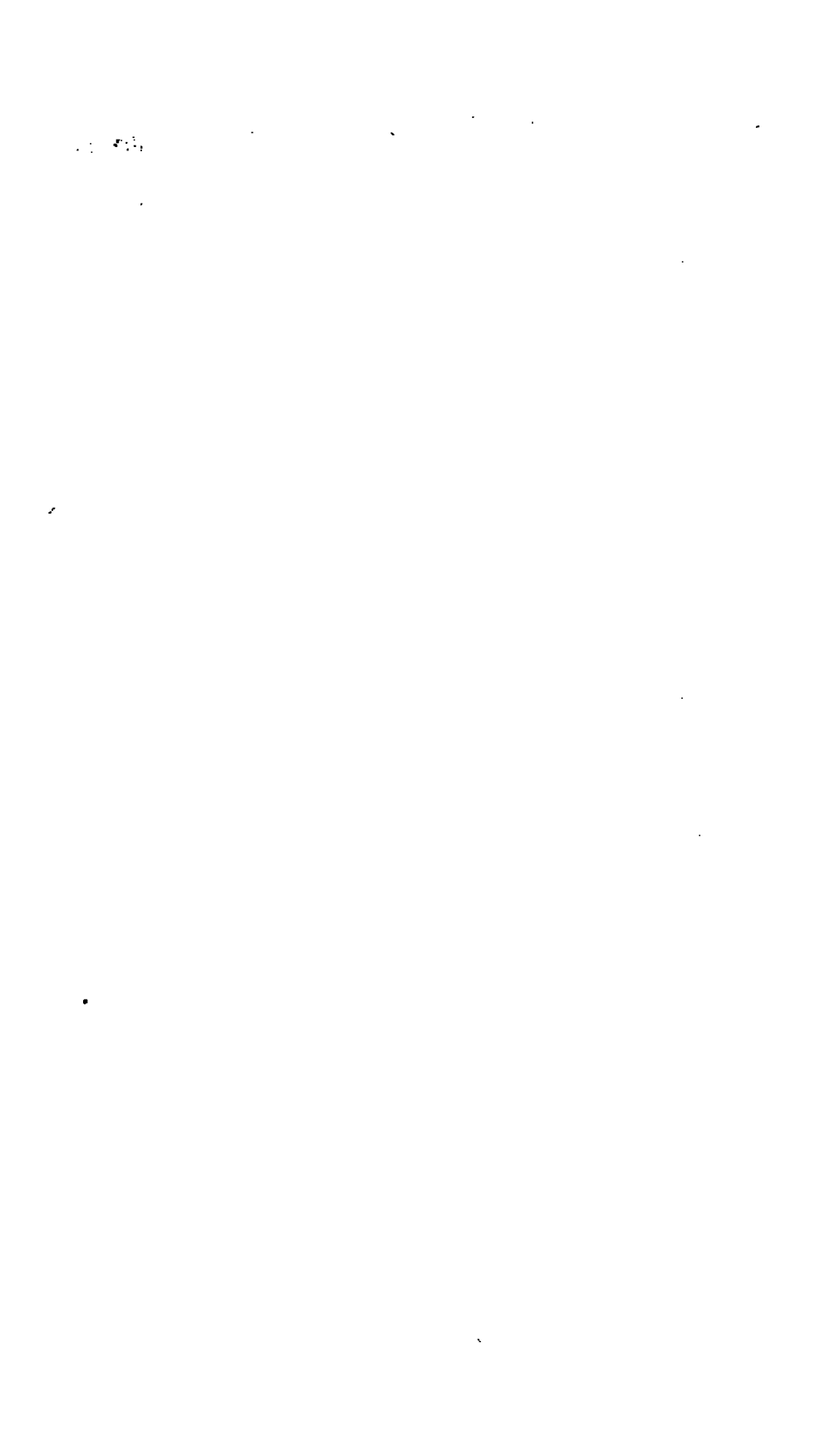
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